

Public Personnel Review

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- Special Problems in Federal Personnel Management Abroad
- Unemployment Compensation for Public Employees
- How Phoenix Selects Laborers
- Classification and Pay in the Philippines
- San Jose's Approach to Occupational Vision Testing
- Streamlined Substitute for Automation
- Classification and Compulsory Arbitration
- Personnel Opinions
- The Bookshelf
- Personnel Literature

Quarterly Journal of the Civil Service Assembly

PUBLIC PERSONNEL REVIEW

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of the United States and Canada

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Public Personnel Review

The quarterly journal of Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada provides a medium for the publication of factual material, and for materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions. The views expressed in articles and other contributions are those of the authors, and may not be construed as reflecting the views of the Assembly or the editors unless so stated.

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Testing Techniques of Hesteryear

In connection with the celebration of CSA's 50th anniversary this year, members have turned up a lot of "civil service memorabilia." Here are three examples of the tests grandpa took.

North Tonawanda, N. Y.

May 28, 1900

Adjourned meeting of the Board of Civil Service Commissioners called to order by Chairman Warner. Present: Messrs. Warner, Rasch and Sayles.

Moved by Rasch, seconded by Sayles that applicants for patrolman be given three hours in which to complete the mental examination, same to begin at 8:30 P.M. Carried.

During the time since last meeting the Commissioners met and adopted the following questions for this examination:

Sheet #1 - Local Data

What is your full name?

How long have you lived in this city?

Are you a citizen of the United States?

Occupation - What and how long?

- Ques. 1 - Locate the different hose houses in this city.
2 - Locate six different fire alarm boxes in this city, giving their number.
3 - Locate four manufacturing establishments in this city.
4 - Locate three dry goods stores in this city.
5 - Locate five groceries in this city.
6 - Locate six churches in this city.
7 - Locate three hotels in this city.
8 - How many railroad depots are there in this city? Locate them.
9 - Locate State Bank.
10 - Locate the YWCA Building.

(Continued on page 157)

Special Problems in Federal Personnel Management Abroad

James J. McGurrian

IN THE past few years, considerable attention has been given to the problems of federal personnel management abroad, both with respect to the selection and administration of the American staff of the activity concerned and the utilization and administration of local foreign national personnel.

There are a number of problems, however, that are rather unique to foreign operations, which have perhaps received rather less attention from the personnel managers than they merit. These problems form the subject matter of this article.

War Hazards

Civilian employees have been exposed to the physical hazards of war on many occasions since 1941. Such exposure has occurred on Oahu, Luzon, Wake and Guam, in Alaska, Greece, Berlin, China, Korea, and Vietnam. Obviously, the possibility must now be kept in mind when assigning personnel and their families to such areas as the Republic of Korea, Taiwan, Vietnam, Berlin, Greenland, the Middle East, and North Africa.

What protection against injury or death due to war hazards should be provided for civilian employees and members of their families who enter or remain in exposed areas in order to serve the United States Government?

What distinction, if any, should be made between United States citizen and non-United States citizen employees? Among civil service, foreign service, non-appropriated fund, and contractor personnel?

What kinds of hazards should be covered

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—wars, United Nations police actions, revolutions, rebellions, civil wars, riots, etc.? Direct or indirect hazards?

What is an "exposed area" in these days of supersonic long-range aircraft, guided missiles, and nuclear bombs and war heads?

How should both coverage and benefits relate to those under laws providing benefits for persons otherwise injured or killed in the course of employment, missing in the line of duty, captured by the enemy, or dying after capture?

These and other questions have received considerable attention during the last half-dozen years but some still remain unanswered, in the writer's opinion.

Assignment to Hostile Acts

In some overseas areas in time of war, the question may arise as to whether civilian employees should be requested to assist in the destruction of military facilities or equipment so as to deny their use to the enemy.

Under certain circumstances, this conceivably could be construed as a hostile act which, under the rules of war, should be performed only by combatant personnel.

A noncombatant who performs hostile acts is not protected under the rules of war or the Geneva conventions.

One feasible solution might seem to be to make such persons combatants by conforming with the pertinent requirements, i.e., wearing of a recognizable military uniform, placing under competent military command, carrying any weapons openly, and so on. Such action, however, would still require answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent should civilian employees be permitted, expected, or required to perform acts which might be construed as hostile?
2. If a civilian employee offers or accepts the performance of such an act, but refuses

combatant status, what action, if any, is indicated?

3. If a civilian employee is given valid combatant status, what effect will this have on his rights under civil service retirement, federal employees compensation, civil service group life insurance, military life insurance, veterans' preference, and other matters.

Since the writer, as also in the case of protection against war hazards, can suggest only partial answers to these questions, he prefers merely to recommend them for the continuing attention of the responsible offices of the Executive Branch.

Prisoners of War

Under the Geneva conventions on civilian prisoners of war, there are certain procedures to be followed if noncombatant civilians attached to the armed forces are to receive the treatment specified by the conventions.

The kind of work a person may be required to do in a prisoner of war camp, how much money he will receive periodically from the imprisoning country, privileges which may be granted, and so on, depend upon compliance with the procedures spelled out in the conventions.

It is important, for instance, that civilians be furnished the "identification" required by the conventions, and that the correct relative military rank of a civilian be established since treatment accorded a prisoner depends largely upon his rank.

Missing Persons

In addition to the protection of employees against injury and death resulting from war hazards and the protection of civilian prisoners of war under the Geneva conventions, it is also important that adequate provisions be made for civilian employees missing after enemy attack, whether captured or unaccounted for.

When an employee is missing, a great many questions naturally arise. What is to be done about his wife and children who may also be overseas at the time? Are they returned to the United States immediately? Is part of his salary to be paid to his wife if he has made no allotment for this purpose? If he has been receiving special overseas allowances, do these continue? All of

them, or only certain ones? Are they paid to his wife? When is he presumed captured? When is he presumed dead? Can his family's transportation be paid to a destination for which the employee himself would not be eligible? And so on. The list could be endless.

Current legislation makes provisions to meet many of the above and related problems. (This is also true in the case of injury on the job and war hazards, of course.) However, it is my personal belief that a well-coordinated "package" of war hazards, employee compensation, and missing persons protection for all categories of personnel, under the several foreseeable kinds of "war" conditions, has not yet been achieved.

Military Jurisdiction

Civilian employees of the military departments in foreign countries are subject to military jurisdiction and court-martials, whether "in the field" or not and whether in time of peace or of war, under the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

In the case of criminal acts under the Code (as we usually think of "criminal" acts, e.g., robbery, murder, larceny, etc.) there is, to the writer's knowledge, no major problem from the standpoint of *personnel management*. Civilian courts in the United States have no jurisdiction over such crimes committed on foreign soil. Military courts must take jurisdiction if any American court is to do so. (Of course, in many cases jurisdiction is assumed by a local foreign court.) Military courts, under the Uniform Code, follow rules of procedure quite similar to those of American civilian courts. Their verdicts can be reviewed or appealed, in proper cases, up to a civilian Court of Military Appeals in Washington.

Some questions seem to me to arise, however, when a court-martial is being considered for a civilian employee for what may be regarded, for our purposes, as an offense against discipline. Most such offenses—disrespect toward superiors, disobedience, false statements, drunkenness, malingering, provoking speeches or gestures, etc.—are also covered by civilian personnel regulations.

These questions may include:

1. When should the responsible commander invoke the Uniform Code of Military Justice and when should the case be handled under civilian personnel regulations?
2. Should a sentence imposed upon a civilian defendant found guilty of an offense against discipline be comparable to that which would be imposed upon a military defendant in similar circumstances?
3. What effect should a decision of a military court have upon the employment status of a civilian employee?

The writer has come to certain conclusions, based on his experience, which may be stated as follows:

1. It is probably desirable that the military commander have authority to court-martial civilian personnel of his own command in foreign countries, under some such conditions as now specified in the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

- a. Command problems and unfairness might result if civilian and military members of a command were charged with joint participation in a crime or an offense against discipline, and only the military members were subject to the jurisdiction of a military court.
- b. In some foreign countries, it is probably preferable to have United States citizen civilian employees tried by military court-martial rather than by local foreign courts.

2. A court-martial conviction should have no automatic effect on the employment status of a civilian employee. It is, of course, a factor in considering further personnel actions concerning the employee.

3. Whenever possible, offenses against discipline or against government regulations should be handled under the pertinent civilian personnel regulations rather than the Uniform Code of Military Justice.

Jurisdiction of the Host Country

There are a number of agreements between the United States and other countries concerning respective jurisdictions in connection with civil and criminal offenses and trials involving military and civilian personnel of the United States armed forces.

The determination as to which govern-

ment should have jurisdiction in a particular case has frequently rested upon the nationalities of the principal parties in the case, whether the offense was committed on a United States base or elsewhere, whether United States or local laws were primarily involved, whether United States or local interests were most affected, and so on.

The matter of jurisdiction, with respect to members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, is covered by the NATO Status of Forces agreement. This agreement provides that the receiving country will ordinarily have jurisdiction over the personnel of the sending country.

Obviously, there are some troublesome problems in countries where investigative and judicial procedures, rules of evidence, definitions and classifications of crimes, kinds and degree of punishment, and so on, differ markedly from American practice.

There is, in my opinion, much which can be done to improve constantly formal agreements and informal understandings with other countries on this subject; to inform American employees fully on such arrangements; to advise them on how to avoid difficulties and on their rights when they cannot avoid difficulties; and, in general, to see that United States citizen employees receive just and impartial treatment.

Ostentatious Living

This has been, and in some places will undoubtedly continue to be, a troublesome problem. It is something which needs attention whenever it appears, even on a small scale.

The reaction of the Congress, the press, and the American people has been uniformly and outspokenly unfavorable to anything which seemed to evidence a "gravy train" situation.

The effect can also be bad on the people of the other countries concerned if American employees seem to be flaunting their material superiority. On a more practical level, there may be local resentment if the more affluent Americans monopolize the best housing because they cannot be satisfied with less than the best.

Americans, of course, are expected to maintain reasonable standards of living

wherever practicable. They must provide comfortable and sanitary living quarters and conditions for their families, unless the local situation makes this impracticable. There is also something of value in showing that American employees, even in lower echelon jobs, are able to live comfortably.

The lack of a sufficient supply of middle-class housing in certain foreign areas may sometimes force American employees to rent somewhat more pretentious quarters than they would otherwise.

Nonetheless, it is undeniable that some small numbers of Americans do tend to live somewhat ostentatiously abroad. It cannot be stressed too strongly that the writer is not speaking of the many, many foreign posts or areas where it is just not possible to live even in comfort; nor of those areas where the cost of living puts an employee to extra expense out of his own pocket even to live decently; nor of the great majority of employees who work hard and live modestly, whether in the United States or abroad.

The problem has to do with a minority of employees in a few areas, but such employees stand out because they are often conspicuous persons in conspicuous locations.

There have been many and various proposals to alleviate this situation, such as: encouraging American employees to live and entertain moderately; encouraging them to save money; withholding part of their pay while abroad; sending American children to local public schools; travelling second-class on trains; buying small local cars, rather than driving big American cars, and so on.

Of course, more than concern with ostentatious living is involved here, although that aspect is stressed since it is the one which stands out most. Other concerns are with snobbishness; failure to associate freely with local people; forming small foreign colonies; not respecting the culture, customs, and traditions of the country; not learning its language, literature and history; entertaining local officials on a scale which makes it impossible for them to reciprocate without financial hardship.

These are all problems which need con-

tinuous attention from management. I believe the most effective approach to the problem is to set an example from the top down. The principal officials of the mission or activity should set an example of self-restraint, modest living, nonabuse of privileges, and general simplicity in official, semi-official, and private matters.

If I remember correctly, it was Albert Schweitzer who said something like this:

"To teach by example is not the best way. It is the only way."

Treaties and Agreements

This is a very fruitful area for careful study. The whole subject of treaties and agreements is one which is not well understood in connection with foreign personnel management and labor relations.

Since the use of executive agreements particularly has come to play such an important role in personnel and labor arrangements abroad, I believe it would be of great benefit to overseas administrators to obtain a fuller understanding of:

1. The different kinds of executive agreements.
2. How agreements may be negotiated.
3. Their legal effect, internationally and internally.
4. What they can and cannot do.
5. When it is wise or appropriate to seek an agreement to cover a particular need.
6. Points of caution.

For instance, some executive agreements are based on statutes or treaties; some are not. Some are self-executing; others are not. Some may require appropriations. Some may require changes in American statutes before they can become effective. Some are formal, numbered Executive Agreements. Others may be oral, or represented only by an exchange of letters. Some may be in the nature of base lease agreements or even procurement contracts. The precise nature of an executive agreement and the circumstances surrounding it should always be thoroughly understood before decisions are reached in reliance upon such agreement.

Citizenship and Immigration Laws

Many United States citizen employees marry in foreign countries. Some marry

foreign wives or husbands whom they wish to bring to the United States. Some women marry foreign husbands in countries where the laws make them citizens of the husband's country.

Men are sent from the United States accompanied by wives who are not United States citizens. Some naturalized United States citizens are sent to the foreign countries of their origin. Some United States citizens by birth are sent to countries of their parents' origin. Some of these people may become subject to certain laws of the other country. In the extreme case, they may be subject to the universal military service laws of the country of assignment.

For these and other reasons, the matter of citizenship and immigration laws and regulations become important. Not all personnel officers, nor all employees going abroad, are as well informed as they might be in this area.

Other Matters

There are other rather unique problems abroad including, to name a few, overseas mobilization planning, evacuation of personnel in an emergency, United States military draft coverage of employees stationed abroad, and the problem of defining a federal "employee" abroad for personnel, budget, manpower, statistical, legal, and other purposes.

Conclusion

There has seemed, to me, to be a rather general hesitancy on the part of personnel

officials in the government to take an active interest in several of the problems discussed in this article. They may have felt that certain problems were more for the attention of the local mission head or military commander, other line officials, other staff offices, or even another Executive Branch agency.

These matters, however, are obviously quite important to civilian personnel, and personnel officials have a legitimate, though not necessarily the primary, interest in all of these problems. The writer's experience has been that problems of this nature have not been satisfactorily solved from the personnel management standpoint unless the top agency personnel office has had the interest and the energy to take the lead in solving them.

In some cases, of course, these problems affect more than one agency. There may be the need, therefore, for one agency, either a major employing agency or a central Executive Branch agency, to take leadership on a government-wide basis.

There should be at least three major objectives in the area covered by this article:

1. Make continuous improvement from the standpoint of management.
2. Obtain the best possible protection for employees, both under United States statutes and international agreements.
3. Furnish full and timely information to all personnel assigned overseas as to the situations they may encounter and the rights which they have.

Unemployment Compensation for Public Employees

Joseph Krislov

FEW will quarrel with the general principle that the broadest coverage under unemployment compensation is desirable. Public employees have been one of the largest single groups of employees excluded under unemployment compensation laws. Even with the recent extension of unemployment compensation to the civilian employees of the federal government, state and local government employees still constitute one of the largest groups excluded from coverage.¹ The omission of governmental employees in the original Social Security Act was based largely on the constitutional problems inherent in financing the program. Recognizing this legal difficulty, the Advisory Council to the Committee on Economic Security recommended that governmental units provide for unemployment compensation payments to their own employees. Indeed, the model state law drafted by the Committee on Economic Security provided that the states cover most state and local government employees.² Yet after twenty years, only one substantial segment of public employees (those of the federal government) is now covered.

The extension of coverage to federal government employees came only after a ten-year fight in the Congress. The slight progress made in extending coverage to state and local government employees strongly suggests that the controversies in the legislatures will be equally long. In view of the limited success, an inquiry into the reasons for and the problems in covering public employees is extremely pertinent. After the arguments against cover-

age have been analyzed, an examination of the difficulties encountered in extending coverage will be made.

The Federal Unemployment Compensation Program

Arguments Against Coverage.—The widespread contention that "public employees never lose their jobs" and therefore have little need of protection against unemployment is difficult to understand. Fluctuations in employment on the federal level have been substantial. At the end of World War II, there were over 3.7 million civilian employees of the federal government. The number dropped quickly to fewer than 2 million by June, 1950. As a result of the Korean War, there was an increase to 2.6 million by June, 1952. Following the cessation of hostilities, the number of federal employees decreased by 200,000 during 1953. For the past three years, federal employment has continued at approximately 2.4 million. Obviously, involuntary separations represented a significant portion of the turnover. In 1949 and 1953, for example, involuntary separations numbered 235,000 and 155,000, respectively.³

The fluctuation in state and local government employment has not been as obvious. Employment in these jurisdictions declined slightly during the war period from 3.1 million. After 1945, the number of state and local government employees has steadily increased. In June, 1955 there were over 4.6 million state and local employees. Despite these increases, separation rates were generally as high as those in federal service. A study by the United States Bureau of Employment Security revealed that compared with federal employment "the annual separation rate was as high, or higher for state government workers in 11 of the 19 States for which data

¹ "Issues for Tomorrow," *Employment Security Review*, August, 1955, p. 64.

² 77th Cong., 1st sess., Sen. Finance Committee, *Economic Security Act*, Washington, 1935, pp. 228, 594-95.

• Joseph Krislov is Executive Secretary, Department Legislation, Research, and Public Relations; Ohio Councils, American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees, AFL-CIO.

³ 83d Cong., 2d sess., Committee on Ways and Means, *Hearings on Unemployment Insurance*, Washington, 1953, pp. 53-4; 75-6.

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are available, and in 21 of the 43 cities and counties." Separation rates were generally higher for local government than state government employees. The number and percentage of involuntary separations varied widely among state and local governments. Nevertheless, involuntary separations constituted at least one-half of the total separations in a number of local governments.⁴

The cost of coverage is frequently cited as an argument against coverage. In 1944, for example, the bill to provide temporary coverage for federal employees was defeated, in part, as a result of an erroneous estimate which placed the cost at five billion dollars.⁵ Estimates of the cost are obviously difficult, especially in some state and local government jurisdictions where accurate data on turnover are not available. Nevertheless, the \$35 million estimate by Under Secretary Larsen of the cost of the federal program has proved substantially accurate.⁶ Similar estimates can be made for state and local governments. And unless turnover is excessive, the cost will not be exorbitant.⁷

Not only the actual cost but the obvious fact that payments must be made from general taxes is sometimes cited as an argument against coverage. This argument can be summarized as follows: "The individual employer can pass on unemployment costs to the consumer, but the state will have to absorb the costs." Of course, this argument overlooks the peculiar nature of government with respect to other employers. Government employees serve and are paid by the entire community. As a result, the cost of any unemployment compensation program for government employees should be borne by the entire community. And by paying the cost from general taxes, the cost is obviously spread over the entire community.

⁴ U. S. Dept. of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security, *Extension of Coverage under State Unemployment Insurance Laws: Employees of State and Local Government*, 1954, pp. 6-7.

⁵ *New York Times*, August 31, 1944; September 14, 1944.

⁶ 83d Cong., 2d sess., *op. cit.*, p. 85. Larsen's estimate for one year was \$35.5 million. Actual cost for 1955 was approximately \$29 million. *Social Security Bulletin*, March, 1956, p. 27.

⁷ U. S. Dept. of Labor, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

Many government employees are covered by retirement systems which permit them to withdraw their contributions if they leave public service. The withdrawal of these funds is frequently regarded as a substitute for unemployment compensation benefits. In most cases, the individual can withdraw only his own contribution and not the matching amounts made by his employer. The amount withdrawn, therefore, tends to be low, particularly in the case of short-term employees and cannot serve as a protection against any appreciable unemployment. Of course, the withdrawal of retirement funds defeats the express purpose of the fund. And in the case of the older employees it may mean that they eventually become recipients of old-age assistance. Equally significant is the substantial number of public employees who are covered by the Federal Old-Age and Survivors' Insurance program exclusively. No withdrawals are permitted from that fund. In addition, the federal government and many states are planning to integrate their retirement systems with the OASI program. The contributions to the retirement funds may be decreased, and the accumulated amount due any individual probably will be lowered.⁸

Accrued leave due an individual is also presented as a substitute for unemployment compensation. Once again, the very purpose of leave—to provide leisure time—is defeated if the leave period is utilized for employment hunting. And as Under Secretary Larsen has pointed out, with respect to a study of unemployed federal government employees, the accrued leave was not sufficient to provide any protection against any appreciable unemployment.⁹ In general, the leave schedules of state and local governments would be less liberal than those of the federal governments.

As an alternative to unemployment compensation, severance pay based on length of service has been suggested. Civil Service requirements and lay-offs by seniority tend to terminate the short term and less skilled

⁸ "Unemployment Experience of Separated Federal Workers," *Monthly Labor Review*, June, 1954, pp. 659-80.

⁹ *Ibid.* See also 83d Cong., 2d sess., *op. cit.*, p. 54.

employee. Any severance pay program would have to provide sufficient protection for these employees who may find it difficult to obtain new employment. While a program could conceivably be formulated, it is difficult to believe that a severance pay plan is *per se* more appropriate for public employees. The lack of any serious thought and any detailed effort to develop severance pay programs strongly suggest that unemployment compensation is probably more appropriate.

Early Attempts Fail.—Legislative interest in extending coverage to the regular full-time federal employees began during World War II. Senator George of Georgia included a temporary unemployment compensation program for federal employees in two general reconversion bills in 1944 and 1945. On both occasions, the provisions for coverage emerged from the Senate, but were deleted by the House Ways and Means Committee. The deletion by the Committee in 1944 was explained on the ground that it would create inequities among maritime employees. Those maritime employees employed by the federal government would be covered by unemployment compensation, but private maritime employees would not be covered. Attempts on the House floor and in Senate-House conference committee—especially in 1944—were unsuccessful in restoring the extension of unemployment compensation.¹⁰

Interest in coverage for federal employees continued in the late 1940's and early 1950's. In 1948 President Truman urged the extension of unemployment compensation to federal employees, and a House sub-committee held hearings on a bill which would have extended coverage in 1951.¹¹

Coverage and Administration.—In 1954 after considerable support from the Eisenhower Administration the Congress pro-

vided benefits for federal employees beginning on January, 1955. Covered under the program are all full-time employees with these major exceptions: elected officials; members of the armed forces; students employed in hospitals; and aliens employed outside of the United States and its possessions. The states have entered into agreements to act as agents of the federal government in paying benefits. Under these agreements, the benefits paid are based on the state law in which the unemployed federal worker resides. The federal government reimburses the state for payments, and the administrative expenses are also recovered by the state from the federal government.

Costs of Program.—The number of initial claims filed in the first two months was high—38,000 and 15,000. For the most part, these claims represented the backlog of claimants who had been released from the service before January, 1955. Subsequently, the initial monthly claims during 1955 fluctuated between 8,000 and 13,000. The cost of the program for 1955 was approximately \$29 million, which was somewhat less than the estimate made by Under-Secretary Larsen.¹²

The coverage of federal employees under unemployment compensation came only after three periods of substantial lay-offs, i.e., World War II, the Korean war, and the 1953-54 "reductions in force." Much of the "real" cost of these lay-offs was borne by the displaced federal employee, and the current costs assumed by the government have been nominal. In the future, however, more of the cost of any lay-offs will be borne by the entire community and the amount spent may be significantly greater.

Status of State and Local Programs

The states did not provide coverage for their own and local government employees in the initial unemployment compensation laws passed in the late 1930's. Many state laws provide that any employer excluded may elect coverage; nevertheless,

¹² *Social Security Bulletin*, March, 1956, p. 27. See monthly editions of *The Labor Market and Employment Security* for data on the federal employees unemployment compensation program.

¹⁰ *New York Times*, August 29, 1944; September 1, 19, and 20, 1944; September 21 and 27, 1945. See also 78th Cong., 2d sess., Committee on Ways and Means, *War Mobilization and Reconversion Act*, Washington, 1945, p. 10.

¹¹ *New York Times*, May 25, 1948. 82d Cong., 1st sess., Committee on Ways and Means, *Hearings on Unemployment Compensation for Federal Civilians*, Washington, 1951.

attempts by governmental units to elect coverage in some states without an express statutory provision from the legislature were nullified by opinions of the Attorney General or by court action.¹³ In other states, it may be possible for a governmental unit to elect coverage without an express statutory provision.¹⁴

Four states—Wisconsin, New York, Connecticut, and Rhode Island—have now covered by mandatory provision most state employees. The Wisconsin law covers by mandatory provision employees of the city of Milwaukee. These four laws also permit election by other political subdivisions. In addition, at least eight other states permit the state or political subdivision to elect coverage for their employees. Only a few jurisdictions have elected coverage. As a result, approximately 90 percent of employees who now have unemployment compensation have been covered by mandatory provision and over three-fourths are located in three states: New York, Wisconsin, and Connecticut. All employees covered represent no more than three percent of all state and local government employees.

Wisconsin, which was the first state to adopt unemployment compensation on a mandatory basis, provided for payments by the state and city of Milwaukee into the fund on the same basis as any private employer. This method was soon abandoned in favor of the direct charge system in which the state and cities would be billed quarterly for claims paid by the state administrative agency. The states which followed Wisconsin in providing mandatory coverage also chose the direct charge system. Many of the states which permit election require contributions on the same basis as any private employer. The benefits paid to employees were generally far less than the contributions required by the law.¹⁵

Other states will undoubtedly be slow in extending coverage to their employees. During the 1955 sessions of state legisla-

tures, the President and Secretary of Labor urged that state and local governments provide coverage for their employees. Only Rhode Island complied. Three jurisdictions—Oregon, Utah, and Hawaii—appointed special committees to study the problem. Providing coverage for state and local government employees is complicated by two factors absent in federal service. Employees in the federal government are hired and advanced by an effective civil service program. Only about half of the states have civil service laws. In addition, many of these laws are not properly enforced in certain departments or localities. As a result, political parties have a vital interest in preserving the availability of jobs. If employees were covered by unemployment compensation, there might be considerable cost when the "outs" won an election and started distributing patronage. The second factor complicating the extension lies in the composition of employment among state and local government employees. Perhaps as many as 40 percent of these employees are in categories that are not usually affected by unemployment, i.e. teachers, policemen, and firemen. Proposals for coverage of public employees therefore do not receive the complete support of all segments of public employees.

Summary

The experiences of the federal government and the four covered states will undoubtedly be utilized by other states in extending coverage. This experience seems to point to: (a) mandatory coverage for state employees with election by local governments; and (b) a direct charge instead of experience rate financing. While only a few local governments have elected coverage, a mandatory bill covering all local units would invoke opposition. In view of the diversity of employment in many local units, it seems advisable to permit the legislative authority to make the final decision. The direct charge financing reduces the cost if employment is stabilized and is therefore very attractive to both employees and the employing government unit.

The coverage of state and local govern-

¹³ 79th Cong., 1st sess., Senate Finance Committee, *Hearings on Emergency Unemployment Compensation*, Washington, 1945, p. 91.

¹⁴ U. S. Dept. of Labor, *op. cit.*, p. 9.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

ment employees will fill one of the gaps in the present unemployment compensation coverage and thereby make a contribution to a more stabilized economy. Equally significant are the possibilities of contributing to the stability of government employment and thereby reducing political patronage. It is possible that groups gen-

erally interested in good government and civil service may find themselves supporting unemployment compensation as a means of achieving these objectives. Together with the labor groups, they may be able to extend coverage to substantial segments of state and local government employees.

How Phoenix Selects Laborers

—Paul S. Prather

THE City of Phoenix, Arizona, has developed a procedure for testing laborers that is more than feeling their pulse to see if they are alive. It is not, however, a means of ranking the applicants. It is only a means of eliminating the unfit. The Phoenix Personnel Rules (Revised 1955) on recruitment of laborers make such an approach necessary. Rule 6i says: "Applicants for the class of Laborer who meet all the qualification requirements of the class shall have their names posted on the eligible list in accordance with the priority of making application, . . ."

Prescreening

Several hundred applications are pre-numbered and a special set of directions are prepared in both English and Spanish. This is a recruiting device to reach a great number of bilingual laborers through Spanish-speaking parents or relatives. Before any applicant receives any forms he is prescreened as to residence, age, citizenship, and ability to read and write English. At this stage statements are accepted without corroborating proof. However, if by the applicant's own admission he lacks any of the qualifications, he is not given an application blank.

Interview

All candidates who pass the prescreening are given an appointment time when they are to return with a completed application form and proofs of stated education, veteran status, birth date, citizenship, residence, etc. These records are checked by teams of technicians during a five-minute personal interview. One objective is to be on the lookout for police records of a nature that would make the applicant unacceptable. At the time of certification criminal records not pre-

viously acknowledged are checked and can be the basis for striking eligibles from the list. Notes of unusual mannerisms or personal characteristics that will help determine the stability of the candidate are also added to the application. Unsuitable persons are eliminated. Applicants who meet the requirements are given a card which tells them where and when to report for a demonstration examination of their physical agility.

Physical Agility Test

A physical agility examination is a difficult project to coordinate. Space must be obtained so that a mass calisthenics drill can be conducted. There must be an adequate number of checkers. One man can't possibly do justice to checking more than ten applicants in a mass demonstration type of test. Checkers are labor foremen, line supervisors, etc., from various departments in the city service that use laborers. They are briefed before the demonstration.

The checker collects the admission card from each man in his group, has the candidate sign a waiver of injury, and gives him a score card. The card is placed on the ground in front of the candidate. After each group of men has been aligned, the calisthenics director, who stands on a raised platform, calls out the exercise, demonstrates it, and then conducts the drill. If a man fails to complete the exercise the checker makes a red check on his score card, but leaves the card in front of the candidate.

The exercises are divided into three groups.

A. These exercises are given to detect any malfunction of the body extremities.

<i>Extremity</i>	<i>Exercise</i>
Head	Rotation
Arms	Extension, Flexion, Rotation, Supination
Hands	Flexion
Trunk	Rotation, Bending

B. These exercises are given to determine coordination and balance.

• **Paul S. Prather** is Personnel Technician in charge of In-Service Training for the City of Phoenix, Arizona. At the time he developed the ideas for the program described in this article, he was in charge of recruiting and testing.

Rub stomach with one hand and pat head with other (reverse)
Stand on one foot, close eyes, and maintain balance for ten seconds.

C. These exercises are given to test minimum endurance.

- 10 pushups
- 10 leg raises
- 25 situps

At the end of the drill each candidate turns in his score card to the checker who answers any questions the man may want to ask, chats briefly and writes a personal recommendation on the card.

Performance Test

All candidates who have red checks on their score cards but are otherwise qualified are given an opportunity to take a special performance test. A board of three observers watches each candidate perform a series of activities.

1. Select a tool, load a wheelbarrow, wheel it up an inclined surface, and dump it.
2. Unload and reload three sacks of cement from a pickup truck.
3. Drive an iron stake with a maul.
4. Select a tool and break through an asphalt surface.

On the basis of the recommendations of the observers, the applicant is either re-

jected or his name is placed back on the eligible list.

Eligible List Compiled

As described earlier, acceptable applicants for laborer are placed on the eligible list in the order in which they applied for a job. The only exception is that the city must comply with the Arizona state law which says: "A laborer applicant who is a veteran shall not be ranked on an eligible list in the order in which he made application as provided in Rule 6i for ranking laborer applicants, but the Personnel Director shall give the veteran preference by having his name moved toward the top of the laborer list by no more than five places—provided, however, he may not progress past a veteran."

After the eligible list is established but prior to the applicant's acceptance to the retirement system, a complete medical examination is required.

In Summary

The Personnel Department believes this method of recruiting laborers weeds out the unfit and gives operating departments a hand in selection.

The tests are held approximately every two years since an eligible list has a legal duration of two years unless the list is exhausted or cancelled.

Classification and Pay in the Philippines

Dominador R. Aytona and Louis J. Kroeger

THIS is the story of the application of old and tested principles to a new and different set of circumstances. It illustrates the adaptation and application of American know-how to the unique problems of a new republic. It also illustrates the extent to which a particular technique of personnel management may have great significance in the economic and social development of a new nation.

New Nation Faced Administrative Problems

The Republic of the Philippines is just a little over ten years old. Founded amidst the ruins of war, the nation was immediately beset by problems of reconstruction and rehabilitation, as well as by the administrative difficulties arising out of virtually beginning all over again after four years of occupation during the war immediately preceding independence.

Because of the difficult conditions which prevailed, and because of the close relationship and traditional friendship of long standing between the American and Filipino people, the Republic of the Philippines has from the beginning received economic aid from the United States.

Economic aid in itself is important; but economic aid alone is not enough. The economic and social affairs of any nation are so closely identified with its government that progress depends on sound public administration.

This being true, both governments soon realized that for their joint efforts in economic and social development to be effective, it would be necessary to improve Philippine public administration. In recent years several administrative reforms have been pushed at once. The government is being reorganized; a performance budget is being developed; officials are

being trained; students are being prepared for professional work in public management; and a classification and pay plan has been prepared. This article is about the last mentioned of these reforms, which was submitted to the Philippine Congress in 1955.

Job Titles and Salary Scales Lacked Consistency

A classification and pay plan as it is known to the public personnel profession has never been used in the Philippines. True, jobs had titles and salaries were set by law; but the titles were either non-descriptive or described different work than the incumbent was performing. Employees doing the same work had many different titles; those having the same title did many kinds of work; and salaries were often based on the qualifications of the individual, the length of his service, or any of a number of other factors foreign to the nature and importance of the work. Such titles as Laborer and Clerk had been used to describe a wide variety of jobs—from the unskilled laborer or guard to the skilled craftsman . . . from the mail clerk or receptionist to specialized technical and professional positions. The past practices of the government were particularly characterized by failure to identify and pay properly for professional positions and for the middle levels of supervision.

To a considerable extent, the difficulty of assigning titles and salaries commensurate with actual conditions in the departments was caused by a very detailed line item budget, which tended to freeze individuals at a certain title and salary regardless of necessary changes in work assignments. Paradoxically, although a detailed line item control was responsible for much of the difficulty, at the same time there were such loopholes in budgets and accounts that when the task of classifying positions was first begun the record showed about 45,000 employees in the regular de-

• Dominador R. Aytona is Budget Commissioner of the Republic of the Philippines.

• Louis J. Kroeger is head of the firm, Louis J. Kroeger & Associates, Management Consultants, San Francisco and Los Angeles.

partments of the National Government; but as the work progressed it developed that there were in fact about 68,000. In this combination of extremes of rigidity and laxity, neither the administration nor the Congress had accurate information about what any employee was doing.

Not all of the difficulties were due to administrative failures. This nation occupies an archipelago of over 7,000 islands, of which well over 1,000 are inhabited, and a very large number are sufficiently populated to require national government services. Moreover, in the Philippines a greater proportion of the public services are rendered by the national government than is true in the United States. In addition, the administration of these services is highly centralized in Manila.

The principal pressure for a modern classification and pay plan came from the extreme inadequacy and inequity of salaries. The public service was badly demoralized. Many employees were forced by economic circumstances either to accept outside employment, which interfered with official duty, or to accept gratuities for services which should be rendered as a matter of course. This criticism could not be applied to the great mass of a devoted civil service; yet realistically there was a real threat to the morale and the integrity of the whole public service.

Pay Adjustments Create Inequities

During the ten years between the birth of the Republic and the time the classification and pay study was decided upon, two principal kinds of salary adjustments were made. One kind resulted from yielding to pressures and granting salary increases by legislation, without prior job analysis or evaluation. This relieved the favored group, but actually increased the inequities for those neglected. The other action consisted of granting several raises in the general minimum salary, without proportionate adjustment in higher salaries. Each such raise elevated all lower salaries to a new level, obliterating any previously existing differentials based on differences in responsibility. By 1953, 48 percent of the employees were being paid

the minimum of 1440 pesos a year. Obviously, no employer of 68,000 people can have almost half of them working at a single rate of pay without gross injustice. In departments having a clear hierarchy of supervision and responsibility, as many as five or six levels were engulfed by the rising minimum, until all differences between them were eliminated. In the prisons, the guard, the corporal of the guard, the sergeant of the guard, the lieutenant of the guard, and the captain of the guard, between whom there were once proper differentials, were swept up to the minimum of 1440 pesos. In department after department, the janitors, laborers, guards, and drivers reached the same salary as that paid to junior professionals. These inequities among people of different responsibilities clearly could not continue indefinitely. They could be excused only for a few years while the new nation struggled to rebuild and to create a new economy.

Adjustments by raising the minimum alone create yet another kind of inequity. In 1941 laborers were receiving 360 pesos per year. Through successive adjustments in the minimum, they were brought up to 1440 pesos per year—an increase of 400 percent. In the same period of time the cost of living increased as much as 300 percent. By 1953 it was about 215 percent over the 1941 base. Thus, the laborer had an increase in pay greater than the increase in the cost of living. His *standard of living* was improved. That is good. On the other hand, employees who in 1941 were receiving as little as 3,000 pesos per year were still receiving the same salary in 1953. In all those years they not only received no recognition for improvement on the job and for seniority; they also suffered a severe cut in purchasing power as the cost of living rose. Their *standard of living* was reduced.

By 1953, patchwork salary adjustments (probably unavoidable under the circumstances) had brought about an improvement in the standard of living of employees who carried on routine jobs and had worsened the conditions of employees responsible for planning and administering the government's program. At this point

it became vitally important to revise the pay plan. Every government must be able to attract and retain planners and administrators to develop and execute the programs for economic and social progress on which the country depends.

Government Contracted for Classification and Pay Survey

On the grounds that salaries in the public service were too low and inequity was rife, the Philippine government entered into a contract in June, 1953, with Louis J. Kroeger and Associates to conduct a classification and pay survey to show the way to correct existing conditions. It was planned that a small staff supplied by the contractor should organize the project, train the necessary staff of Filipino analysts and supervisors, and guide the initial development and installation of a classification and pay plan. On the understanding that the national government employed about 45,000 employees, the initial staff consisted of seven representatives of the contractor and about 45 Filipino analysts.

The work began in August, 1953. The Philippine government having no classification and pay plan was also without personnel trained in the field. The Civil Service Bureau, itself not too generously staffed, was experienced only in examining and in disciplinary procedures. Since the first concern was with salaries, and salaries constitute the bulk of the national budget, the Budget Commissioner was designated as the contracting officer for the Philippine government.

Contractor Trained Local Staff

The organization and training of the Filipino staff began the day after the first of the contractor's staff arrived in Manila. For the first two weeks each morning was devoted to training in classification techniques and each afternoon work was done on the details of project planning, including the design of the questionnaire form and the writing of necessary instructions. Those who took the first two weeks instruction were mainly those who had been designated by the Philippine government

for supervisory responsibilities on the project.

At the end of two weeks, an intensive course of instruction had been completed and all plans and schedules were ready. In the next two weeks the instruction was repeated for the balance of the staff. The newly trained supervisors assisted in these sessions. This arrangement was deliberately contrived; first, to expose the supervisory personnel to a double shot of instruction, and second, to establish their supervisory status in the eyes of their new associates by having them participate in the instruction. The strategy paid off. Those originally designated for supervisory responsibility have without exception retained their positions. Despite its brevity, the intensity of their first instruction, combined with the pressures of getting the job done, have given them stature on the job.

Since an important objective of the project was to train the Filipino analysts and necessary supervisors and administrators to the point where they would be able to install and administer the plan after it was completed, the entire operation was organized from the beginning to be a continuing training program. The departments of the government were grouped as nearly as possible on the basis of some similarity of function or type of position. Each team was directed by a supervising analyst. The desk next to each supervising analyst was occupied by one of the contractor's staff. It was the role of the latter to assert leadership until the new supervising analysts became fully aware of their duties and responsibilities, after which the burden of direction was to be shifted until a stage was reached where the contractor's staff could be withdrawn. Similarly, the entire operation was under the joint direction of a Filipino project director and the project manager of the contractor, with adjoining desks. The close cooperation which has been possible throughout the project by infusing the contractor's staff through the actual physical layout of the Filipino organization has created an easy informality in relations and made training a day-to-day reality rather than a periodic exercise in schooling.

Survey Project Expanded

The project began with the distribution of a questionnaire to all employees of the government for a statement of their duties and responsibilities. Preparations had been made to distribute questionnaires to 45,000 employees. At this stage it was discovered that there were considerably more employees than anticipated on the national government's payroll. When the distribution of questionnaires was finally completed it turned out that there were actually 68,000 employees.

This substantial increase in the coverage, coupled with the urgent necessity of completing the project on the original schedule, made it necessary to expand the contract to provide additional consultants and Filipino analysts. This need was discovered at the time a national election was taking place, in which Ramon Magsaysay emerged as the new President of the Philippines. The contract expansion was negotiated and approved by the outgoing administration, with the full knowledge and consent of the new. By common consent, the contract was also extended to include 25,000 employees of government corporations and over 90,000 public school teachers. Thus, within a very few months after the project started, its coverage was virtually quadrupled. To assume this staggering increase in burden, the consulting and local staffs were merely doubled. Yet so thorough had been the training, so vigorous the leadership, and so enthusiastic the response of the local staff, that the "quadrupled task" was carried to successful conclusion on the original schedule by the "doubled staff." The project schedule required that the basic classification and pay plans be delivered to the Budget Commissioner on December 31, 1954. They were delivered one day earlier.

How Classification Survey Was Conducted

Behind completion of the survey was fifteen months of intensive activity. Questionnaires were obtained from 183,000 employees; nearly 30,000 were interviewed or observed at work in every province in the nation; all positions were first grouped

into broad occupational groups; then subsequently divided into levels of difficulty and finally placed in distinct and discreet classes. The 183,000 positions were fitted into approximately 2,300 classes. Among these are not only the classes typical in any governmental classification and pay plan, but many specialized classes resulting from the varied corporate enterprises maintained by the Philippine government, including a hotel, a railroad, a steel and shipyard, in addition to other typical corporate utility activities.

Interviewing and observing work was far more important in the Philippines than may be true in more ordinary circumstances. This kind of work was an important step in completing the training of the local analysts. Since none had prior experience in personnel operations, they had a limited concept of the occupations comprising the vast complexity of an entire public service—general governmental program corporations, and the school system. Moreover, because of the interruptions of war, occupation, and reconstruction, until the classification analysts appeared on the scene, many employees in the more remote provinces had not seen a representative of the national government from Manila for years. The field trips of the analysts served both to verify the work being done and to spread the message of the steps being taken by the government to improve its public administration, and particularly to improve the lot of its employees.

How Pay Plan Was Established

While realizing the many other advantages of a sound classification plan, the first major objective of the program was to establish a compensation plan that would attract better employees and boost the morale and strengthen the integrity of those already in the service. To establish the foundation for the new pay plan, the first comprehensive salary survey in the history of the Philippines was conducted with the assistance of 329 business firms, who contributed data concerning their salaries and related compensation factors. The complete lack of previous exchanges of salary data among private employers is under-

scored by the results. Almost without exception, where the data for a common key class were examined, it was found that even eliminating the upper and lower quartiles of the data, the remaining interquartile range still had a range of 100 to 500 percent. This posed difficult problems of interpretation and application of data. Still and all, these same problems afforded an unusual opportunity to train the local staff in the many ways in which this kind of data can be interpreted and applied. The standards and the methods by which it was finally determined what are in fact the "prevailing rates" in the Philippines are too numerous to report here. They may one day well be the subject for a separate paper.

Of equal importance to the national government in furnishing some basis for establishing its own pay rates, is the effect this salary survey had on industry itself. The summaries which went back to industry have started action toward more systematic private salary administration. Thus, again the effect of the government's action is far-reaching in its influence upon the total economy and social progress of the nation.

The final pay plan consists of 75 salary ranges, each consisting of 5 steps at 5 percent intervals. Only 52 will be in active use for the time being. This marks the first introduction into the Philippine national government of a plan for the systematic advancement of employees on the basis of the quality and length of their service.

Despite considerable variations in most practices by private employers, there was a fairly consistent tendency to make a distinction between the pay of employees in Manila and employees in the outlying provinces. Since the practice reflected a rather obvious difference in the cost of living, the new pay plan includes a geographic differential between the Manila metropolitan area and the rest of the country. The outlying rates will be 80 percent of those in Manila, with provision for payment of the Manila rate in extraordinary cases where employees cannot be recruited in the local market or where there are other extenuating circumstances. This plan has been adopted only after the

most careful consideration, including a firm belief by the contractor that the Filipino staff has so progressed in its understanding and its ability to administer a program that the administrative difficulties inherent in applying a geographic differential will be skillfully handled.

When the basic compensation and classification plan was submitted in December, 1954, it was estimated that it would increase salary costs by about 40,000,000 pesos, or about 12 percent of the total payroll. This over-all figure, of course, does not by any means tell the whole story. The adjustment will in no sense be a 12 percent across-the-board increase. The employees, particularly in the lower brackets, who have benefited by past increases in the minimum were often found to be adequately paid, whereas for many professional, supervisory and administrative employees, the adjustment may be 100 percent or more.

The Republic of the Philippines is still not completely out of its early financial difficulties. It may not be able to put the plan into full effect upon its first adoption. Instead, it is anticipated that in the first year of its taking effect, each employee will receive 30 percent of the increase to which he is entitled, followed by another 35 percent in the second year, and the final 35 percent in the third year.

Plans Submitted to Congress

Here we must introduce briefly the subject of government reorganization. The 1954 session of the Philippine Congress created the Government Survey and Reorganization Commission, with authority to make a sweeping reorganization of every entity of the national government. Its authority includes classifying positions and standardizing salaries. The Commission organized in August, 1954, and by February, 1955, with technical assistance from the same contractor, submitted 50 reorganization plans to President Magsaysay, of which he transmitted 47 to Congress. Among them, Reorganization Plan Number 1 adopted the classification plan; Reorganization Plan Number 2 adopted the compensation plan; and Reorganization

Plan Number 3 transformed the survey staff into a permanent Wage and Position Classification Office in the Budget Commission.

In the 1955 session of the Philippine Congress, all of the reorganization plans, except one relating to economic planning, failed of adoption. This failure was no reflection on the plans themselves nor did it represent any attitude by the Congress that the plans were not worthy. Rather, the Congress felt that the program was too comprehensive to study and consider adequately in the 30-day period for congressional consideration which was permitted under the original reorganization act. The Congress therefore disapproved all but the one plan as a technical move to delay their consideration until the 1956 session. At the same time the Reorganization Act was amended to allow for 70 days of consideration during the 1956 session.¹

In Summary

In the added year that this delay in approval has provided, the contractor's staff has been reduced on the classification project, while continuing at full strength on government reorganization. The classification plan has been kept up to date by the reallocation of positions as changes have been made, and a number of major changes have been made to correlate the classification plan with what has taken place in

¹To complete this phase of the story, early in 1956 fifty-three plans, including those on classification and pay were resubmitted by the President to the Congress and on May 5 thirty-three of them, including classification and pay, gained final Congressional approval. The plans take effect July 1, 1956. In the meantime, another general salary increase law, applying only to the public school teachers, has reduced the remaining total cost of adopting the new pay plan to about 27,000,000 pesos.

reorganization. In many instances, departments have gone ahead with major reorganizations on the basis of plans recommended at the last Congress, wherever it has been possible to do this by administrative action.

Thus experience adds weight to the claim that a classification plan must remain dynamically related to changing circumstances in government.

The added time has also been utilized to train departmental representatives in the fine points of classification and pay techniques. This should expedite the ultimate decentralization of the administration of the classification plan. It is still intended that for the first year or two the plans will be administered centrally to insure a good start. Thereafter administration will be decentralized as rapidly as possible, with standards maintained by the central agency.

When the plan is finally and fully in effect the Philippine government confidently expects these benefits:

1. Every job will be understood and defined.
2. Salaries will be equal to responsibility, and on a par with private practice.
3. National employees will be selected and trained more exactly.
4. Morale will be improved.
5. A high degree of integrity will be restored to the public service.
6. The principle of "equal pay for equal work" will have practical meaning.

In general summary, in the words of Ladislao Yap, Project Director for the Philippine Government in this undertaking, the Philippine Government will have "the right man in the right job at the right salary."

San Jose's Approach to Occupational Vision Testing

Donald S. Macrae

THE City of San Jose, California, has, for several years, conducted a comprehensive program of medical examinations for all city employees. The program, fostered and supported by the Civil Service Commission, is unique among cities for the reason that the medical examinations are comprehensive and are conducted by specialists in the field of internal medicine. A complete medical examination is administered to all inductees and is also given periodically to those already employed. Employees over 45 years of age are required to have annual medicals; those under 45 are required to have examinations every three years. In special cases more frequent medical examinations are administered to employees if conditions warrant it.

These medical examinations are administered by medical specialists who perform their services on a contractual basis. They are familiar with the working conditions and requirements of the various city departments. The examinee is required to have, in addition to the doctor's examination, laboratory work involving urinalysis, blood analysis (Wasserman, hemoglobin, blood sugar, and glucose tolerance if indicated), a chest X-ray, and an eye examination using the Bausch-Lomb Ortho-Rater. Tests for suspected hearing losses are made by an appropriate specialist. In general, where Workmen's Compensation is involved, referral cases to specialists are at city expense. In nonindustrial cases, the employee is urged to see his family physician, and a report of the medical findings is forwarded to that doctor.

Since the purpose of this article will be to describe the development of an improved vision testing program as part of the larger program of medical examinations, it will suffice to state that the story of

the development of the total medical program through the joint efforts of the Civil Service Department and the City Health Department has been told in the February 1954 issue of *Western City* by Dr. Dwight M. Bissell, City Health Officer, and Mr. Robert N. Klein, former City Personnel Director. (Mr. Klein is now City Manager of Santa Cruz, California.)

How Visual Test Program Operates

After analyzing the results of the medical examinations over a period of time it was believed that it would be desirable to improve the eye tests. Following much research and thorough investigation, in August of 1955 the city adopted a medically supervised occupational vision testing program which integrated the revised visual requirements into the over-all medical standards currently in effect. Minimum standards which could be used in routine vision testing procedures were developed for the various job classifications in the city service. These visual standards are applied to employees already on the job as well as to those being processed for appointment.

In order to establish this plan upon a sound, scientific, and practical working basis the city obtained the Ortho-Rater vision testing equipment. This instrument, together with an industrial vision service, was purchased from the Bausch-Lomb Optical Company. The professional services of an ophthalmologist were engaged on a consulting basis. Dr. H. Weldon Wilkinson, a San Jose industrial ophthalmologist, with considerable experience in this field, was interested in assisting in the development of the new program as few employers, even those in private industry, had professionally supervised vision testing programs.

Through its scientific research facilities the Bausch-Lomb Optical Company as-

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sisted in determining the original vision standards to be used for the various city job classifications. This determination was based on a study of our class specifications in relation to the visual skills that had already been established by scientific research, and generally accepted by industry, as desirable minimums for similar job types. From this study eight different visual profiles were developed which covered all of the 195 class specifications currently included in the city's classification plan. These visual profiles are graphic representations of the vision standards against which the individual's test results can be checked at a glance.

Using these visual profiles, a trained and competent operator can reliably examine an employee, or prospective employee, on the Ortho-Rater in about 7 to 8 minutes for the various visual skills which have been found to be significantly related to job safety and efficiency. The eye examinations are accomplished by a city staff nurse (R.N.) under the medical supervision of the consulting ophthalmologist. Minimum total time for training the nurse is about 16 hours.

The visual skills examined for are the distance and near vision acuities, the phorias, depth perception, and color vision. The Ortho-Rater has lent itself well to visual testing on a large scale and has proved to be superior to the old method of wall chart testing for the acuities. It also assures reasonable standardization of techniques and conditions of testing.

After the applicant or employee has been tested on the Ortho-Rater, the results can immediately be compared with the profile standards for the job type in question to determine whether or not he possesses the minimum degree of visual skills required for the job. The nurse refers questionable cases to the consulting ophthalmologist for his interpretation of the test score. The Ortho-Rater test may be ordered repeated in certain borderline cases. In any event, the final test result becomes a part of the examinee's medical record in the personnel files.

When a job applicant fails the test, he is informed that his visual skills fall below the minimum acceptable level. However,

if he passes acceptable physical requirements otherwise, he may still be hired, provided he secures correction for the vision deficiency by means of appropriate prescription lenses and demonstrates this corrective rehabilitation by passing the Ortho-Rater re-test.

In the case of persons already employed, they are urged to take advantage of the knowledge thus gained about their visual skills and seek professional attention for the particular visual skill deficiencies found on the test. Acceptance of such a recommendation is left up to the employee as a matter of voluntary compliance in most cases. However, in employment of a hazardous nature, as in the operation of mobile equipment where significant visual skill deficiencies could be an accident factor, the employee may be required to obtain a corrective rehabilitation of the deficiency through his own choice of doctor and demonstrate the rehabilitation on a follow-up Ortho-Rater check. If rehabilitation is not accomplished or is impossible, reassignment may be necessary in the interests of job safety.

The Civil Service Department notifies employees by letter of the results of their Ortho-Rater tests and the recommendations of the ophthalmologist. Where a referral for eye care services is recommended for the correction of deficiencies, both new applicants and employees are furnished with a special "referral form" and letter to present to the ophthalmologist or optometrist of their own choosing. This letter explains why the individual is being referred and summarizes the test results in medical terms. It also gives our consultant an opportunity to mention any unusual features about job visual requirements or to make any suggestions that may be of help in working out the ideal occupational vision correction. Adequate space is provided for a professional report of corrective results obtained, and comments on any pathologic conditions noted, which might have occupational significance.

This "referral form" procedure has been well received by the local professions. Furthermore, when reports are interpreted by our consultant, they have provided a medical perspective on the occupational

vision status of applicants and employees that has been valuable to them as individuals, as well as being helpful to the city as an employer.

Results at End of First Six Months

As of March 1956, 416 permanent male employees had been examined, those 45 years and older being examined first. Additionally, there were 157 pre-employment medical examinations administered to males in the recruitment process. Forty-four female employees were examined in the course of the recurring exams and 75 females were given pre-employment medical examinations. Of the 692 persons tested for vision requirements 100 failed to meet the established minimums and 96 fell into the fringe category. Of the pre-employment group there were 6 fails and 5 in the fringe category. (The reason for this appears to be that the pre-employments tested were in a younger age group.)

An interesting fact came to light when we reviewed our results for the period reported on (August 1955 to March 1956). We discovered that for the first 100 persons examined we had a higher degree of fails and fringes than for the remainder, and of those rechecked as scheduled there was considerable improvement found. This could not be wholly attributed to the fact that the persons examined were in the age bracket of 45 years and older and needed corrective glasses. Apparently the main reason was that we had started with an inexperienced tester who was unfamiliar with the Ortho-Rater and who had to be trained from the beginning. This person was replaced by an individual with experience in operating the equipment.

One thing which has contributed to the success of our vision testing program has been the employment of a consulting ophthalmologist to assist us in setting up and carrying out the program. Additionally, the availability of competent medical services has given the employees confidence in the results of the Ortho-Rater tests while the professional groups have been able to discuss the referrals with a qualified specialist, and as a result have cooperated better with the program. Another beneficial result of having a consulting ophthalmolo-

gist was the development of a more realistic and meaningful set of vision requirements for our medical standards as they relate to the job classifications.

Cost of Testing Program

While it is too early to give a detailed report on the cost factors as translated into savings for the city, we can give some figures on the general health and safety program which are both conservative and accurate. Because of a comprehensive medical examining program, coupled with the good work accomplished by Mr. William C. Hanley, our Safety and Training Officer, the city recently received a dividend of \$26,000 from its insurance carrier, the California State Compensation Insurance Fund. Because of the high level of good health among city employees the average number of days sick leave per employee per year was substantially below the national average to reflect savings of approximately \$20,000. While difficult to compute in terms of dollars and cents, increased efficiency of the working force means additional savings to the taxpayer.

Some Recommendations

For those who are interested in establishing an occupational vision testing program, we offer these recommendations:

1. Employ the services of a consulting ophthalmologist who is familiar with industrial and occupational problems to assist in setting up your program.
2. Pay particular attention to the selection of the person who will be administering the vision testing. It is essential that this individual be intelligent, competent, and well trained.
3. Be sure that adequate steps are taken to establish rapport between the persons administering the program and those being tested. Poor rapport can affect the test results. Anxiety, tensions, misunderstandings, etc., may be reflected in inaccurate readings.
4. Make certain that the testing is conducted in favorable surroundings where there is a minimum of distractions.
5. Advise the optometrists and ophthalmologists in your community of your vision testing program and elicit their cooperation in replying to your referrals. This requires a health education program since not all of those who check eyes and prescribe glasses are familiar with occupational vision requirements.

Streamlined Substitute for Automation

Barbara J. Kingsley

WONDER-WORKING electronic scoring devices are not economically feasible for the Portland Civil Service Board, serving only 3600 persons in about 200 classes. However, the volume encountered in the statistical analysis of the annual examination program in an operation of this size does demand speed and a high degree of efficiency.

In the mid-forties, there was a large backlog of examinations to be given. Many temporary and provisional employees were to be examined and given permanent appointments. City services were expanding, and qualified eligibles were being requested by the various city departments. Recruiting was a simple matter, but the examination program was bogging down at the scoring tables. In those days, true-false, multiple-choice, and completion type questions were being answered directly in the examination booklets, which contained from 150 to 200 items. Reducing the number of items and hiring more scoring clerks failed to improve the situation to any marked degree. Finally (by using arguments of economy and efficiency in personnel as well as storage space) the staff overcame the reluctance of the Board to the use of separate answer sheets. Their success was immediate. The first step toward streamlining was completed.

Since then, not only has the type of answer sheet changed, but also the system used to score the answer sheets. Keyed strips, punched overlays, clear plastic overlays, etc., were employed to score approximately 5000 papers annually. Although all of these methods were relatively successful, they fell short of the efficiency attained by the most recently adopted scoring system. A description of the details of this system will quickly point up its advantages in speed, accuracy, and ease over the time-honored but subsequently superseded systems.

• Barbara J. Kingsley is Personnel Examiner for the Civil Service Board of Portland, Oregon.

Hole Drilled Through Each Correct Answer

The present method is an outgrowth of the pin-punch device used by many school teachers in scoring IBM answer sheets. In fact, Mr. Robert Selby, a school teacher anxious to improve the system used in the local schools, introduced his "Marx-All" system to the Portland Civil Service Board where it was revised and improved to its present state.¹ Basically, the "new" scoring method is to make a "keyed" copy out of each candidate's answer sheet. This is accomplished by drilling a small hole through each keyed answer. Twenty to thirty answer sheets are done at the same time, using a small high-speed electric "palm" drill. Various drill bits were tried, until a small, craft bit was found which actually removes the paper, leaving a clean hole $1/16"$ in diameter. The papers are held in place on a rubber-based formboard. Using the "electric" drill, 100 answer sheets can be keyed in less than five minutes without destroying or altering the candidates' markings. With a small hole through every correct answer, it is a simple matter for the scoring clerk to pick out quickly the incorrect responses on each answer sheet and to record the total score.

Buff Colored Paper Used

The most satisfactory paper was found to be 16-pound sulphite of the standard buff tone. As the very nature of the drilling system limits the use to only one side of the sheet, there is no reason to use the more expensive 20-pound paper commonly used for double printed pages. Buff paper was chosen as less straining to the eyes of both the candidates and the scorers, and because the black void of the holes shows up so well in contrast to the light paper. The answer sheets are printed on an off-set machine which gives very accurate registration. This last factor is extremely im-

¹ Mr. Selby has a patent pending under the name of "Marx-All Scoremaster" for the formboard and drill described in this article.



Scoring Clerk Drills Hole Through Correct Answer

portant, as the drill cannot be adjusted for improperly aligned answer spaces but will cut through the 30 pages in a very objective manner without regard for individual idiosyncrasies. The use of standard black ink for printing the answer sheets has been discarded in favor of a medium

orange. This offers enough contrast to the buff paper so that the candidates can keep their places, but it does not catch or confuse the scoring clerk by a marked similarity to the candidates' pencil or pen markings, nor to the dark void of the holes. In an effort to have as few distractions on the



Scoring Clerk Looks for Wrong Answers

page as possible, numbered choices formerly circled by the candidates have been replaced by IBM type parallel dotted lines to be filled in by the candidate. These choices are lettered but appear only at every third line.

How Papers Are Scored

In scoring, the clerk scans the paper for omitted items and for those with more than one choice marked. These items are scored with a noticeable blue-pencil line drawn completely through all choices.

Then the clerk scans the paper for wrong answers. The light colored answer sheets are usually placed on a dark surface, either regular desk surface, or a standard blotter. This dark surface shows through the keyed holes in sufficient contrast to arrest the scorer's eye. If the candidate chose the correct answer, the drilled hole will blend with the pen or pencil marking and only one dark area will appear on that line. If, however, the candidate chose an answer other than the correct one, the correct one will show as a small round dark spot, and the candidate's mark will be a wide solid line, resulting in two marks for that question. The clerk merely scores through the question number of this error and continues her scanning for multiple marks. The total of wrong, omitted, or multiple-answered items is then subtracted from the total number of questions, and the result gives the total right answers. Counting wrong answers, in the majority of cases, is a shorter process than counting the number of right answers. Also, it is easier to recognize the blue-marked wrong answers than to search among them for unmarked right answers. The time consumed in computing the simple subtraction is negligible, and a simple subtraction is also less subject to error than a long, sometimes interrupted, count of right answers.

Thus time is saved in every step of the way. Instead of handling and aligning a guide or overlay for every one of 100 papers, 25 to 30 papers can be drilled (scored) at a time. The permanent "key" hole saves even greater additional time if a second clerk is used to double-check the previous scoring. (However, it has been discovered that this second scoring is unnecessary as the first clerk has so little opportunity to err.) The key is also useful when explaining the scoring to candidates who wish to review their papers.

How Item Analysis Is Done

The permanent key on each paper has the further advantage of being the preliminary step in a probing item analysis system. Not content to discover merely how many candidates answered each ques-

tion right or wrong, the Portland Civil Service Board wants to know, in addition, how many candidates select each wrong choice. With this information items can be revised as the need arises, and the less tempting wrong answers can be made a bit more tempting and discriminating. A multiple-choice item with a right answer, and only one tempting wrong answer is hardly more than a true-false item and should require a scoring formula with a correction for guessing.

A simple one-clerk operation for tallying for an item analysis has been devised. The item analysis tally sheet is drawn off in small blocks aligned and numbered to correspond to the placement of the question and answer columns on the answer sheet. This tally sheet, printed on 16-pound canary paper, is placed over a single keyed and scored answer sheet on a lighted, microscope surface, providing bottom lighting. Through the tally sheet, the clerk searches the answer sheet for blue pencil marks in the question number column, indicating a wrong response by the candidate. Having found a wrong answer, the clerk makes a small tally in the block covering the candidate's choice. If the error is one of omission or multiple answer, the tally is made in the block containing the question number. By the time the clerk has finished the complete set of papers, tallies of the wrong responses fairly leap out of the page at her. Where there are more than 25 candidates in any one test, the answer sheets are divided into upper and lower groups, so that reliability and difficulty quotients may be computed. For smaller groups all the papers are analyzed together, and some opinion of the difficulty and reliability of the individual items is formed by comparing the proportion correct for each question with the total number of candidates.

When an item analysis shows that a large proportion of the candidates chose the same wrong response to a specific item, that choice is scrutinized very carefully to determine whether it is too nearly correct. Occasionally credit must be given for what the examiner had thought to be a wrong answer but which turned out to be suffi-

ciently correct to mislead the candidates. Then that response must be altered until it will actually discriminate when included in some future test. This editing cannot be done mechanically.

In Summary

The Portland Civil Service Board had no magic formula or short-cut blueprint for reaching their present level of stream-

lined operations. The regular staff applied observation, imagination, logic, trial, rejection, determination, and persistence to achieve the present results. This same combination will be used to attack other problems in this agency, and can be discovered in, and used by, any other agency. Automation has an important role in our present and future civilization, but is not a substitute for human endeavor in all cases.

Classification and Compulsory Arbitration

Paul Simard

WITHOUT thinking as far ahead as amicable U. S. Senator Richard L. Neuberger, from Oregon, who believes there will come a time when Canada and the United States will unite "as one mighty sovereign nation" as a result of the logical and well ordered decision of all the people and has already even coined a name for the new nation—Canarica—we cannot but realize that currents of opinion travel more and more freely between our two countries. In the public administration field, to name one example, both officials and employees are interested in exchanging information and ideas for their mutual benefit. In this article I would like to discuss some experiences of the City of Quebec with bargaining and arbitration which I believe will be of interest to people in the United States.

There are some differences, not necessarily contradictory, between the activities of municipal employee organizations in the United States and Canada. Probably the greatest difference is that in Canada unions have the right to obtain a collective bargaining agreement and the right to compulsory arbitration. In the United States, it is usually agreed that the right to form an association in a public agency does not include the right to obtain a fixed contract.

In the Province of Quebec, compulsory arbitration applies to all categories of municipal employees. This means, of course, that municipal labour relations present a continuing challenge. Some municipal administrators and officials are beginning to question whether collective bargaining and compulsory arbitration are the best methods of handling job classification and other personnel matters not directly related to the economic status of employees.

Can the problems of classification be solved by negotiation and compulsory arbitration? Can this method be continued

either under its present formula or under an improved one?

The art of negotiating is essentially the art of making compromises and agreements. To negotiate means to haggle, to bargain. On the occasion of the renewal of each collective agreement, the classification plan may become the object of negotiation, bargaining, compromise. The same thing may also happen with the allocation and reallocation of positions. Does this seem to be the best way to make adjustments in what might be called the foundation of the personnel program—which has been developed by especially trained technicians, at considerable cost of time and money?

The case of public employees is not the same as that of employees of private enterprise. A public agency cannot discontinue its services even if it is operating at a deficit. The financial results of its annual operations have little consequence on the economic welfare of its employees. The temptation is very strong for employees, and they come to deem it fair, to use the classification plan for the purpose of obtaining salary raises supplementary to those resulting from the periodical adjustment of salary scales. On the occasion of each negotiation or arbitration, employees usually obtain some amendments to the classification plan and position reallocations—which are used the next time to justify further changes.

During negotiations conducted in 1955, the white collar association of the City of Quebec stated that if the schedule of pay ranges it asked for was agreed to, many classification grievances would be automatically settled because they were caused and justified by too low salaries. The association, however, did not state precisely what these illegitimate grievances were. The position classification plan and the pay plan are two entirely separate things, however close the relation between them. For employees and their associations, there often seems to be no distinction, and they

• Paul Simard is Personnel Director of the City of Quebec, Canada.

apply such factors as cost-of-living and pay rates in private industry to both. They assert that the main problem is obtaining proper salaries, even if the classification plan must suffer. The weakness of this argument is that they constitute themselves as the only judges of what are fair salaries.

Furthermore, it is considered good tactics to save something to concede to the negotiators and to hold back something for the arbitration board. Political pressure is also exercised in behalf of classification grievances. This is the democratic method by which employee groups as well as other citizen groups can inform the people who are in power of their grievances. On the other hand, efficient and economical administration can be damaged if pressure is pushed so far that politics is introduced into personnel administration.

In a large municipality it is physically impossible for the members of the negotiating committee that represents the city council to make a systematic and complete study—and to make it within the necessary time—of all the numerous classification grievances that are presented under the present system. This is not always recognized by employees who often blame both the committee and their union representatives for undue delay and lack of consideration for their problems. This, of course, does not help good labour relations.

When grievances are referred to a council of arbitration, the situation is not much more satisfying. Maintenance of a classification plan requires competent administration, continuity of policies and procedures, and a good knowledge of the problems and organization of the municipality. Arbitration boards seldom contain experienced personnel men or men possessing a good knowledge of municipal organization. There is a different board for each group of employees. Furthermore, there is a constant turnover among board members since they are appointed for a concurrent, definite, and rather short period of time. Usually each union appoints its own representative to the relevant board.

It might be added that arbitration boards are not usually impartial. Unions and employers normally nominate a per-

son who agrees (actively or passively) to act as an advocate for the party which nominates him. In practice, the decision is in the hands of the chairman who very often assumes the role of conciliator.

Because of the absence of carefully qualified powers and established procedures to serve as guides, arbitrators often make decisions which unduly interfere with administrative action. On the occasion of classification hearings, arbitration boards have created new positions, modified positions, and have even promoted or appointed employees to these new and modified positions.

In their book "Municipal Labour in Canada," S. J. Frankel and R. C. Pratt report the following statement of a Canadian personnel director:

One of the more serious aspects of arbitration awards is the effect on other groups of Civic employees who are not entitled to arbitration. . . . Where job evaluations are in effect Arbitration Awards can create a very serious problem. In 1949, the City of _____ made a job evaluation including Fire and Police Department and we have been in a continuous turmoil as a result of Arbitration Awards to one or the other of the two uniformed groups both in respect to these departments and other groups of civic employees.

Where there is compulsory arbitration, no large municipal service can be considered as a whole. There must be as many classification plans as there are units of negotiation and collective agreements.

Nomination by the Province of permanent chairmen of arbitration boards would undoubtedly produce many advantages with respect to the settlement of disputes about salaries, vacations, sick leave, and other related working conditions. Would it be the same in the field of job classification? I doubt it strongly. Job classification is a very technical work and requires considerable knowledge of the organization and the problems of the municipality. Too, there would remain the danger of undue interference in administration.

Experience has shown that when classification is subject to detailed negotiation and arbitration, employees tend to try to obtain a change in their classification.

Even if such a change ameliorates their personal situation, it is likely to be temporary for them and may be unfair to some other employees. In the long run, I firmly believe it will be prejudicial to the prestige and the interest of employees and will weaken their cause for fair salaries. Job classification and organization of services call for continuous and systematic administration that arbitration boards cannot provide.

It is the duty and to the advantage of all concerned—employees and employers—to do their best to reduce the field of possible disputes to the narrowest dimension. Would it not be preferable for municipalities and employee organizations to avoid detailed negotiations on subjects which are only remotely related to the economic status of employees and limit the scope of collective agreements to salaries, hours of work, leaves with pay, and other working conditions of a similar nature? Employee organizations could then proceed by suggestions and petitions with respect to matters pertaining to administrative activities that affect their members.

Conclusion

In municipalities where collective bargaining has already been adopted, joint consultations might be undertaken between representatives of employees and the municipalities in order to come to an

agreement providing that administrative problems affecting employees but only remotely related to their economic welfare be entrusted to a competent personnel agency such as those recommended by organizations like the National Civil Service League, National Municipal League, or Public Administration Service. This would limit the scope and complexity of collective agreements to questions of principles and working conditions directly related to the economic status of employees and would narrow the field of possible disputes without depriving employees of fair and democratic treatment.

When a public agency is considering the use of collective bargaining for dealing with employees, care should be taken to adopt legislation that defines the field to be covered by negotiation so as to avoid undue interference with administration relating to position classification, recruitment and selection, training, promotion and transfer, employee evaluation, and discipline.

I do not pretend that all the assumptions and suggestions presented in this article are not open to questioning. On the contrary, they have been made in the hope of stimulating discussion and study of this particular aspect of municipal labour relations to the end that they will be improved and thereby the municipal public service will be improved.

- What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

Since 1956 marks the Golden Anniversary of the Civil Service Assembly it seemed an appropriate time to bring up the question of professional standards in the personnel field for fresh discussion. The editors also felt the opinions expressed by the contributors would be of interest and value to members of the Committee on Professional Development established by the Executive Council at the 1955 Conference on Public Personnel Administration.

The Question

Some personnel people believe there should be formal "professional standards" in the personnel field. Do you think this action would be feasible? Now? In the future?

The Replies

CHARLES L. CAMPBELL, Administrative Director,
New York State Civil Service.

In my opinion personnel administration in the public service is not new and is not likely to ever become a profession comparable to medicine, law, architecture, etc. And for one paramount reason: I do not think there is, or is likely to be, any uniform and widespread agreement on professional standards which would be essential to public recognition.

Part of good public personnel practice is technical—but the required techniques can best be learned on the job. Part of such practice is administrative—but principles of administration can be taught through a combination of in-service training plus practical experience that is generally more effective than academic training.

This is not to deny that specific academic training in public administration and political

science generally is a good basic background for the potential public personnel worker. There has been no overwhelming evidence in my experience, however, that good or outstanding personnel workers may not be developed without such basic training.

More important than any prescribed academic background may be a broad training in the liberal arts, a real interest and ability to deal with people, some experience that has developed an understanding of the problems of the operating man who has the practical end of personnel administration to cope with, an open mind, good judgment, and not least, imagination.

These, obviously, do not lend themselves to standard rules of measurement essential to the setting up of a "profession." Yet they have been present and effective in many of the most successful public personnel men and women. And I suspect that is equally true in private industry.

It may be suggested that an "elite" professional group might be established on the basis of proved successful experience in personnel management. What would be the standards of measurement, who would set them, who would do the accrediting or certification? This would seem to be an impossible task. Would the applicant have to have demonstrated effective effort in one field—for example, testing—or in several fields? If the former, would the standards be higher than the standards in a combination of two or more fields?

And wouldn't any such scheme create schism among personnel workers? Some of us have not forgotten the rankling irritation of twenty odd years ago when, to my knowledge, the idea of "professionalization" was first broached. There was no agreement then on standards of measurement nor anything else, and there would not be today.

[Editor's Note: Mr. Campbell is referring to a resolution adopted by the members of the Civil Service Assembly at the 1937 Conference held in Ottawa which created a Committee on Professional Standards. In September, 1938, the members of the

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Committee, Charles P. Messick, Leonard D. White, and Clarence Dykstra submitted an Interim Report. An entire morning session was devoted to consideration of the report at the 1938 Conference in Washington, D. C. No official action was taken by the membership to set up professional standards.]

No organization that I know of would be generally accepted as qualified to establish professional standards and certainly not to enforce them in the sense that medical standards are enforced. It is pipe dream to think that enforcement could be attained through legislation, federal, state, or local. At best we would have a standard to which might rally a limited group who could get a vicarious lift to their ego and a topic on which to write endless articles or speak from lofty heights for the enlightenment of their less renowned co-workers.

Undoubtedly, many better qualified to speak, will take issue with my argument. But as I see it—there you are.

NORMAN C. ECKLUND, Supervisor of Examinations, San Francisco Civil Service Commission.

I believe there is a distinct and immediate need for formal professional standards in the personnel field. I believe such standards are feasible, necessary, and practical.

We have seen too many instances of the appalling spectacle of government and business leaders consorting with the enemy or engaging in full treason. The inability or unwillingness of such leaders to recognize or to accept moral responsibility is a direct indictment of the personnel standards of government or business which permitted such persons to advance to positions of power. Democracy dies a little every time a representative of government or business commits an act harmful to the interests of the public. How shall we establish rules of conduct by which to evaluate those acts short of treason which weaken respect for our country at home or abroad?

Semantics are a tempting diversion here. Definitions of terms could easily draw attention from the basic project of gaining concurrence in the ethics deemed proper for persons in or associated with the personnel field. Recent variant approaches to the problem question will illustrate methods of avoiding the entrapment which semantics invite.

Paul H. Douglas, United States Senator from Illinois, in his book *Ethics in Government*, describes the difficult problems of elected officials and government employees with respect to protecting public interests. The "conflict of interests" theme of Senator Douglas' book was

given statutory recognition in the enactment by the State of New York in 1954 of a code of ethics for state employees, members of the legislature, and legislative employees. This legislation was prefaced by a declaration of intent which reads as follows: "A continuing problem of a free government is the maintenance among its public servants of moral and ethical standards which are worthy and warrant the confidence of the people. The people are entitled to expect from their public servants a set of standards above the morals of the market place. A public official of a free government is entrusted with the welfare, prosperity, security, and safety of the people he serves. In return for this trust, the people are entitled to know that no substantial conflict between private interests and official duties exists in those who serve them."

The statute then sets forth a code of ethics in ten rules which are concerned with a delineation of what activities shall constitute conflicts of interest. These rules perhaps could be characterized as commandments except that they are still fairly general and are not illustrated with critical incidents to guide those affected by the legislation.

The American Psychological Association within the last decade undertook the formulation of a statement of ethics which has now been carried to an advanced stage. Statements of progress in this undertaking are contained in several of the Association's publications. The "criteria of the good profession" as formulated by Fillmore H. Sanford appeared in the *American Psychologist*, 1951, 6, 664-670. Thirteen characteristics are set forth in the study which describes the standards against which any aspirant "profession" can evaluate its own motives. Through committees of the Association, extensive work has now been done in gathering hundreds of critical incidents grouped by subject matter and followed by statements of principle which suggest proper bases for handling the incidents. This summary is extremely practical because problems from actual experience are commented upon in terms of the ethical principles which are applicable. It is this kind of guide which is needed in the personnel field. Reference to such a guide enables the person confronted with a perplexing problem to review the group thinking of others doing similar work throughout the country. Once having made his decision in the light of such support he can have greater confidence in the act which he takes based upon such counsel.

The personnel field exists in virtually every organized social activity. It exists in all levels

of government, in the Armed Forces, in industry, in hospitals, and in schools. The larger the activity program the greater the likelihood that a formalized personnel program will come into effect; also in all types of activities where personnel work is done, it is as an arm of management, not as a self-serving unit. Thus, any professionalization can come about only with the full support of management. Whether significant differences exist between the basic ethics desired among various managements (government and industry, for example) seems largely unknown. The differences in professional outlook between good government and good industry are probably minor. Research and study are needed to establish the areas of communality which can be dealt with in the professionalization of the various fields of personnel work.

Good standards of conduct and of performance are the essence of professionalization for personnel workers. It should be possible to gain acceptance of minimum criteria of both conduct and performance which would be useful in guiding managements in their selection and evaluation of personnel people, in guiding present personnel workers in self-improvement, and in guiding future entrants to the personnel field in the selection of their courses of training.

It would be naive to assume that the development of professional standards will assure the observance of high moral or ethical standards. The professions of law, medicine, and even the clergy have not been entirely free of instances of dereliction. But the fact that such derelictions can be identified and punished is proof of the value of tested criteria by which to judge what is right and what is wrong in terms of public interests.

The development and implementation of professional standards for personnel workers will not be done easily, nor can it be done by any one individual. It can be done by committees from among the various organizations now interested in personnel and management functions. The results of such a project should serve to raise the level of performance of personnel work. The publics being served will properly be the greatest benefactors. Personnel workers will themselves benefit through improved morale, improved prestige, and improved emoluments.

ELDER GUNTER, City Manager, University City, Missouri.

In recent years the subject of establishing formal professional standards in the various fields of public administration has received

wide attention. There are a number of explanations for this.

We are aware of the trend of recent years relative to the increasing number of services rendered to the public, and the acceleration of the degree of specialization necessitated by the body of technology which has developed in connection with rendering these services. The result has been a division of labor equal to performing our public tasks more effectively—both in terms of money and in human resources. Public personnel administration is one example of a continuing development along specialized lines.

Administrators and technicians working in their respective specialties tend to develop a feeling of "togetherness" owing to the fact that each group deals somewhat with the same substantive matter. The logical development is the formation of an organization to assist in the exchange of ideas and experiences, to promote public recognition of organization aims, and to foster and stimulate a professional approach to the job. A professional outlook is developed, perhaps a code of ethics is evolved, and generally somewhat informal standards of measuring the acceptability of prospective members are developed. More recently, however, there has been a great deal of discussion in specialized public administration organizations concerning the need or desirability of setting more rigid standards with respect to entrance requirements and subsequent professional development. There has been a great deal of discussion about professional certification along the lines that the professions of medicine and law, for example, have developed.

It is my opinion that the public administration specialists—the city managers, the public personnel administrators, the public finance officers, and such—have not yet reached the stage of development where it would be desirable to set rigid standards relating to entrance requirements, certification, and a system of organizational sanctions to keep the membership in line with arbitrary standards. In the first place, it appears to me that the public personnel administrator—and this also applies to the other public administration specialists—has not as yet reached a stage of development in his specialized knowledge where he can be clearly classified in his type of work or in his educational background, to be established as a professional, and backed by an organization setting arbitrary and rigid standards. This is not to detract from the virtue of a professional attitude towards our respective specialties. Such an attitude should be basic to the public

personnel administrator and should be encouraged in every possible way.

Should formal standards be desirable in public personnel administration, the logical medium for establishing them would be the organization dealing most extensively in the substantive matter of personnel administration, namely, the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada. However, the primary function of such an organization, I believe, lies in another direction. The organization should provide a place for the people with common interests to exchange ideas, conduct research in the personnel field, promote training, and provide information to specialists in related activities.

Should professional standards be adopted, at least one new function is added, that of policing the organization to eliminate those not meeting the professional standards and to enforce conformance to these standards by a system of sanctions. To me these are strictly negative functions and would tend to interfere with what I believe to be the primary goals of the public personnel organization, i.e., facilitating the advancement of personnel administration by establishing a common ground for people with like interests to exchange ideas and promote research and training.

Another important consideration in this matter of adopting formal standards along the lines of the established professions is simply that, although the organization may succeed in having a certified membership according to any arbitrary standards it may adopt, there is absolutely no assurance that the multitudinous governing agencies will employ personnel administrators that are certified or approved by the organization. Individual agencies may very well have specific qualifications that are way out of line from the arbitrary standards the organization might adopt.

All of this is to say that at the present time it is doubtful whether anything would be gained by formal standards and certification in view of the fact that governmental agencies are not bound to employ their personnel administrators on the basis of the same standards the personnel organization has developed. Undoubtedly, in many instances there would be mutual agreement and a happy choice could be made. Yet we must not lose sight of the fact that formal standards, certification, and all of the rest of it will bar from membership many individuals with a good potential in the personnel field; men that are rich in ideas and experience yet may not be acceptable on the basis of arbitrary standards.

I think the organization has not yet reached that stage of development where it can afford to be that rigid in its standards. The field of public personnel administration is still a young one, comparatively, and there remains much room for development, experimentation, training, and exchange of ideas. Closing our ranks too tightly may stifle the trend toward professionalism of public personnel administration by making groups of "ins" and "outs" in the field. Dividing our ranks at this time will hamper the free interchange of ideas and will retard the service relationship that has heretofore existed between public personnel administrators and their respective agencies, on the one hand, and the substantive personnel organizations on the other.

FERREL HEADY, Assistant Director, Institute of Public Administration, University of Michigan.

In my opinion, formal "professional standards" in personnel work are undesirable if by this is meant a system that would impose specified minimum requirements as a general legal condition for appointment to personnel positions. Such action would be neither feasible nor wise now, and probably not in the future. This does not infer any opposition to the objective of improved technical competence among people who are engaged in various aspects of personnel work. Nor does it discount the value of identifying and describing as fully as possible the kinds of knowledge and skills which appear to be desirable in those performing personnel duties. This view is not intended, either, to show opposition to the setting of minimum qualification requirements for particular kinds of jobs in particular jurisdictions. What I am arguing against is the adoption of a statutory registration or certification system which would automatically prohibit the employment for personnel work of individuals who fail to meet the prescribed standards.

The question of "professional standards" in the personnel field is not new. Almost twenty years ago, in 1938, the Civil Service Assembly received a report on the subject from its distinguished Committee on Professional Standards. The matter has been debated from time to time since then, and is now receiving attention again during the 50th anniversary year of CSA.

In personnel work as in many other kinds of administrative activity, recent years have brought a pronounced movement toward "professionalization." This has meant such things as the creation of professional organizations,

the publication of professional journals, and a feeling of professional identification among people engaged in the same kind of work. For the most part, this trend toward professionalization has been applauded as evidence of maturity, competence, and responsibility. At the same time, apprehension has been expressed on the ground that professionalization of administrative specialties will prove disruptive and divisive if allowed to proceed unchecked.

The potential issue is often brought into focus by proposals for "professional standards" which are to be formalized and sanctioned in some way, such as a legal requirement for registration or certification. Thus the standards become a matter of public policy, and individuals who fail to conform to the minimum requirements are barred from the professionalized activity. The diversity of "professions" which have been recognized in this way can be indicated just by listing a few of them, such as accountancy, law, medicine, cosmetology, mortuary science, chiropody, forestry, teaching, and social work.

Naturally the formulation and application of standards for performance of professional work often seems to be a highly desirable objective for most professional or semi-professional groups. Usually such standards are largely the product of the group concerned, and it sponsors their adoption. In this instance, however, it seems to me that such a development would be detrimental both to personnel specialists and to the organizations for which they work.

The debate as to whether or not personnel administration is a "profession" cannot really be settled because of the lack of consensus as to what constitutes a "profession" and what characteristics a "profession" must have. Even the partial list of "professions" mentioned above shows what a flexible word this is. If the crucial test is the possession of a readily identifiable combination of knowledge and skills as a prerequisite to engaging in personnel management activities, then the personnel "profession" has not proved that it can qualify. There is no commonly accepted body of professional knowledge which must be acquired by all those who may be expected to perform satisfactorily in any phase of personnel work. Certain kinds of previous training may be recognized as helpful in doing a particular segment of personnel work, such as test construction, position classification, or employee counseling. But the technical aspects of one of these specialties can be mastered without knowing the others. No branch of personnel work requires a highly rigorous and

extensive period of training as for law or medicine. For some types of personnel assignments, especially in the more responsible posts, other qualifications may be much more important than technical know-how about the specifics of personnel operations. Formal educational training for personnel work as such has had and should have only limited objectives. Internships or on-the-job training seem to be much more realistic ways of learning how to carry on the ordinary activities of personnel agencies. There is, in short, no recognized and substantial common body of professional knowledge which can be imparted by a formal training program and which must be possessed by any individual who should be permitted to work in the personnel field, despite the fact that we have developed standards of technical competence in some types of personnel work.

Even if it should be conceded that personnel administration is indeed a profession, it does not follow that it is the kind of profession which requires a formal system of certification as a matter of public policy. The general public does not need automatic protection from unscrupulous or incompetent personnel practitioners in the way such protection is required as to lawyers, doctors, and dentists—or even cosmetologists, chiropodists, or embalmers. One of the most persuasive reasons for imposing a system of licensing or certification is largely absent here, just as it is absent or relatively unimportant in the case of other kinds of specialists employed in the public service.

If this assumption is wrong and official certification as to the professional proficiency of personnel specialists is needed for protection of the public, then logically the same or similar schedules of requirements should be used in both public and private organizations using such specialists. The consequences of such a policy as applied to business organizations are perhaps more apparent and harder to defend, but the justification for governmental regulation would rest on the same footing in both cases.

The most important consideration against such a system of legally imposed standards, however, has to do with the nature of the personnel function in organizations. Personnel work, whether it be the drafting of examinations, the classification of positions, or even the training of employees, is not an end in itself. The justification of all personnel work must be that it contributes in a positive way to the achievement of the objectives of the organization for which the personnel work is being

performed, whether this objective be the paving of roads, the operation of an employment service for people seeking jobs, the manufacture of refrigerators, the operation of an airline, the education of children, or the carrying out of some other governmental or non-governmental program of action. Personnel management is a "staff," "auxiliary," or "house-keeping" activity, depending on the terminology one prefers. The important thing is that personnel work, and hence the performance of "personnelists," must be judged by what is contributed to the achievement of organizational goals rather than by any narrower criterion of conformity even to accepted modes of conduct for personnel operations.

The reason I stress this, of course, is that it points up the desirability of freedom of choice on the part of the responsible management officials in any program agency for the selection of personnel specialists and the conduct of personnel operations. Without denying the necessity in public administration of setting some criteria for selection and treatment of employees in this area as in others, it does seem to me that the burden of proof is on those who propose to establish general qualification standards for personnel work. This is especially true in a period when the recurring criticism of personnel specialists is that they tend to over-emphasize the technical aspects of their work while overlooking the basic reasons this work is being carried on. The resulting "triumph of technique over purpose" has been frequently commented on with reference to both public and private personnel operations. This tendency is likely to be strengthened rather than weakened by resort to formalized and legitimized standards drawn up by the personnel technicians themselves and imposed by legal sanctions upon those who need assistance in personnel administration. At this juncture, such a development would have the bad effect of further insulating the personnel function at a time when major emphasis should be placed on the integration of personnel work with other aspects of management.

MURIEL M. MORSE, Assistant General Manager,
Los Angeles Board of Civil Service Commissioners.

The question of the need for formal professional standards in the personnel field is double-barreled. It involves two questions: first, the need for standards in the personnel field, and second, whether or not those standards result in a profession. The latter determination is far

more complicated than the answer to the simpler question of whether or not we need standards. So let us begin by considering the simpler question first.

The Need for Standards.—Every occupation or work has a need for, and does in fact, have some kind of standard for its performance. One would not hire a 98 pound consumptive for the task of Laborer, or a high school graduate, without further training, as a skilled Machinist. Even the simplest of tasks requires certain definable knowledges, skills, and abilities. What, then, are the standards for our field? What does a personnel worker need to know in order to do his job effectively? The field itself is in the process of trying to answer that question. The answer so far has been a functional one, directed toward the various specialties in the field, such as testing, classification, training, and the like. With modernized research techniques we shall have better definitions of more fundamental skills and knowledges, and with that will come improvement in the means of measuring them. At the present stage of development we can find only a rough and approximate answer to the question.

Knowledges and Abilities Needed for Personnel Work.—Approached subjectively, there are at least four broad areas of requirements in which personnel administrators seem to find agreement. A personnel worker must first have a knowledge of jobs. He must know jobs in order to be able to describe and classify them, to recruit for them, to test for them, to train for them, and to evaluate workers' performance in them. Since he works with occupations in nearly all phases of the personnel process, this knowledge seems to be basic.

Equally so is a second skill which underlies the whole personnel process—the ability to write. Writing skill is a necessary ingredient for the examiner in the preparation of test items, for the classifier in job descriptions, for the trainer in developing manuals, and for the recruiter in preparing attractive announcements.

A third ability, generally listed first in job success in almost any field, and certainly a requirement in the field of personnel, is a high order of personal qualifications in order to perform the service aspect of our work effectively and in order to communicate our ideas successfully. It has frequently been said, and it cannot be restated too often, that no matter how good an agency may be, if it does not enjoy the confidence of operating management, the employees, and the public, it falls short of accomplishing its purpose.

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A fourth body of knowledge which the personnel worker needs is in the field of measurement. If one were to give a general definition of personnel work, it could well be the science of measuring the work done by man and of measuring man. It is my opinion that our greatest need in all phases of personnel work is in the development of measuring techniques. The dangers of intuitive personnel work are only too well known by those in the field, and the most effective way to acquaint those outside of the field with these dangers is to replace this process with sound measurement tools. If we are careful not to confuse progress with change, it is in this field that we shall make our greatest advance.

Standards of Conduct.—In addition to what a personnel worker must know, there are also things which he must be. Those of us who work in the field are well aware of them. We have a certain obligation to set standards for all employees in our agencies in appearance, in conduct, and in attitudes. We must sacrifice certain activities and associations in order that the impartiality of our decisions may not only be known to us, but recognized and accepted by those who live with them. Beyond this, the requirement for public personnel people to operate as agents of public purpose and in the public interest imposes a higher ethical standard than in private personnel work.

Training for Personnel Work.—If it can be granted that certain standards and requirements are necessary for personnel work, then one can move easily to the next step, that a certain amount of training is necessary in preparation for this occupation.

What is the recognized training in the field? At the present time it is vocational, but there is hope in the attitudes of personnel administrators themselves. Several years ago an advisory committee to the School of Public Administration, University of Southern California, sent a questionnaire to such administrators asking what training and education backgrounds they considered desirable for their staff. Answers clearly showed a preference for the broad, general educational background and at a college level. In this decision alone there is a separation from the vocational pattern. One reason for such a decision may stem from the fact that personnel is itself a broad, general field. Take, for example, the knowledge of jobs. One needs to know more than just the title or definition of the work, and this requirement of dipping into a wide variety of occupations itself broadens the field considerably. A knowledge of jobs is not a course

found in most curricula for personnel administration. Hence, administrators have a tendency to select people from all backgrounds in order to help meet this lack and to supplement broad, general background with on-the-job training concerning occupations. Despite this, and regardless of how far along or well developed the field of training for personnel work is, there is a growing agreement on the need to develop curricula. The number of universities and colleges having courses in public personnel administration has increased immeasurably in the last decade. As the field becomes better defined, the broad, general and vocational training will probably be replaced with more pertinent subject matter.

Who Should Set Standards.—Insofar as entry standards for personnel work are concerned, I, for one, am opposed to government stepping in and registering people in the personnel field. I believe that the most successful standards will be developed by organizations within the field and I hope, of course, that the Civil Service Assembly, which already has a committee working on the development of such standards, will assume the responsibility of leadership in this area. If we choose to do so, we would do well, also, to escape the pitfalls which some groups have experienced in attempting to professionalize themselves. All of us are familiar with the techniques of setting high standards in order to achieve status and pay commensurate with self-evaluation. Standards for our field should be realistic, and any attempt to set them on any other basis or for any extraneous reasons should be avoided. All of us are familiar, too, with the attempt to professionalize the field by building a fence around it and ascribing to its work certain mysterious techniques and terms which are not understandable to the layman. Most of all should the personnel field avoid this hazard, for effective communication is one of our basic requirements. Already the gobbledegook of public service and certain professional fields is too much of a handicap to the average individual attempting to live in an age of specialization, and sadly enough, we, too, have made our contribution to this confusion.

With respect to standards of conduct, here again it is the responsibility of those within the field to express them. A formal written code has more value when individuals identify themselves with the group adopting such a code and accept its standards.

Is Personnel Administration a Profession?—In answering this question we are faced both

with the problem of defining a profession and determining whether personnel administration meets the criteria of that definition.

Regardless of which criteria we choose to include, until we can better define the body of knowledge which the personnel field encompasses, the training it requires and standards for performance in it, we cannot by any definition call it a profession at the present time.

Yet certain characteristics of the field, including the highly individual responsibility

of the personnel worker, the intellectual nature of the occupation, its service aspects, the tendency toward self-organization, and the desire for voluntarily imposed standards all show progress in the direction of a profession.

Although we are not today a profession in the same sense as medicine or law, it is certain that since the elements of a profession are present, then as we define the field and set the standards, the profession will emerge. In the meantime, first things first.

the

bookshelf

The feature is possible because of the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This bibliography on supervisory training was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Elaine Woodruff, Librarian.

Supervisory Training

Books and Pamphlets

Beckman, R. O.

How to train supervisors. 4th rev. ed. New York, Harper & brothers, 1952. 335 pp.

Introduces and defines "determinate" discussion as a specialized type of conference technique in which the scope is restrained and the direction pre-determined.

Civil service assembly of the United States and Canada. Committee on employee training in the public service.

Employee training in the public service. Chicago, 1941. 172 pp.

Comprehensive survey of the subject. Includes the management of training activities, techniques of training, training materials, the training department, and evaluation of training.

Cornell University. New York State school of industrial and labor relations.

Techniques of managerial development: a report of the Fourth annual conference of training directors. Ithaca, 1950. 54 pp.

Techniques in planning and organizing supervisory development programs, including case studies and role-playing methods.

Dooher, M. J. and Vivienne Marquis.

The development of executive talent. New York, American management association, 1952.

An excellent collection of articles on the philosophy and methods of executive development which can readily be applied to supervisor training.

Fisher, Waldo E.

Development of supervisory personnel. Pasadena, Calif., California institute of technology, Industrial relations section, 1951. 36 pp. (Bulletin no. 20)

The need for capable supervisors in modern industry, how to go about selecting them, and suggested methods in training.

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Halsey, George D.

Selecting and developing first-line supervisors. New York, Harper & brothers, 1955. 203 pp.

Presents a suggested program of supervisory selection and development which utilizes finds of recent research in area of motivation and satisfaction. Summarizes results of research as they are being applied to improve the quality of supervisory leadership.

Jennings, Eugene E.

Improving supervisory behavior. Madison, University of Wisconsin, School of Commerce, Bureau of business research and service, 1954. 35 pp. (Wisconsin commerce studies, vol. 2, no. 1)

Account of the problems encountered and solutions attempted in developing a training program on the following basic techniques of successful supervision: must give clear-cut instructions; must be fair to the workers; and must go to bat for the employee.

Kahn, Robert L. and Daniel Katz.

Leadership practices in relation to productivity and morale. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, Institute for social research, 1952. 26 pp.

Summarizes research studies covering the supervisor's ability to play a differentiated role, the closeness of supervision, employee orientation and group relationships.

McLarney, William J.

Management training; cases and principles. Chicago, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1952. 358 pp.

Material is intended for first-line supervisor and the middle-management man, and utilizes the conference case-study method of training. The training course is divided into four parts, one emphasizing supervisory relationships to management, one dealing with internal management of a section, and two sections on developing and maintaining the work team.

National industrial conference board, inc.

Developments in supervisory training. New York, 1952. 84 pp. (Studies in personnel policy no. 124)

Report on recent trends in supervisory development in 75 companies. Surveys types of programs offered, techniques used, subjects included, and methods used in training new supervisors.

Pfiffner, John M.

The supervision of personnel; human relations in the management of men. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. 454 pp.

The varied functions of the supervisor in his role as manager, group leader, and adviser, and problems in selecting and training supervisors with particular attention to their human relations role.

Planty, Earl G., William S. McCord, and Charles A. Efferson.

Training employees and managers. New York, The Ronald press, 1948.

An excellent basic reference on employee training. Discusses training organization, administration and evaluation.

Randall, Raymond L.

Developing management potential. Washington, U.S. Civil service commission, 1955.

An excellent introduction to the techniques of group appraisal. Describes a method through which training needs of supervisors may be determined and met through the action of higher-level supervisors.

Society for personnel administration.

Supervision and supervisory training. Washington, 1954. 44 pp. (Pamphlet no. 7)
 "Selected guides and viewpoints to aid in supervision and planning supervisory training."

Contents: Supervisory training as a diagnostic instrument, by Leland P. Bradford; Take a look at supervisor training, by James G. Stockard; The dilemma of personnel administration, by Gustav C. Hertz; What's wrong with supervision, by Frank E. Miller; and Important considerations in planning supervisory training, by Ray H. Coffman.

U.S. Civil service commission. Inspection division.

Guide for planning supervisory development in federal agencies. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1951. 16 pp.

Initially prepared by the Federal personnel council. Defines supervision, its basic principles, and the objectives of supervisory development, with suggested methods and topics for a sound program.

Magazine Articles

Bailey, Joseph K.

The goals of supervisory training: a study of company programs. *Personnel*, vol. 32, no. 2, September 1955, pp. 152-162.

Compares the factors considered most important in good supervision as reported in the literature and in 25 company programs. Substantial agreement exists between the factors considered of first importance. Examines the training programs of various companies to isolate the emerging trends in training.

Blansfield, Michael G.

The maturing of managers. *Personnel administration*, vol. 18, no. 5, September 1955, pp. 38-47.

Describes a program set up at Norton Air force base designed to promote managerial maturity in supervisors. The objective of the program is to induce insight into supervisors so that they would see themselves with some degree of objectivity.

Buchanan, Paul C.

A system for evaluating supervisory development programs. *Personnel*, vol. 31, no. 4, January 1955, pp. 335-347.

Summarizes progress made in evaluating supervisory development programs and proposes a method of evaluation which measures how well the program meets the needs for which it was designed, and the appropriateness of the processes used in developing it.

Fredriksen, C. W. and Helmer Martinson.

Helping supervisors train themselves in human relations. *Personnel*, vol. 31, no. 5, January 1955, pp. 310-322.

Case study of specific human relations problems used by Tennessee Valley Authority to help train supervisors. Outlines methods by which problem cases were chosen; how problem was defined, and techniques by which a conclusion was reached.

Gray, Robert D. and L. Robert Sorensen.

Practicing supervision. *Personnel*, vol. 30, no. 6, May 1954, pp. 491-503.

Emphasizes need for including practice sessions in training programs for supervisors and describes method by which supervisors and potential supervisors get a chance to practice supervision.

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Korb, L. David.

How to determine supervisory training needs. *Personnel*, vol. 32, no. 4, January 1956, pp. 335-352.

Stresses the importance of training only after actual need is established. Discusses in detail techniques which may be used to determine needs and explains program which General Electric uses to determine individual training needs.

Korb, L. David.

How to measure the results of supervisory training. *Personnel*, vol. 32, no. 5, March 1956, pp. 378-391.

Examines need for careful evaluation of supervisory training, practical aspects of this evaluation, use of experiments and surveys, requirements for an evaluation plan, and results to be achieved. Includes two sample plans.

Korb, L. David.

Self-development in supervisory training. *Personnel*, vol. 31, no. 3, November 1954, pp. 206-211.

Describes a middle management supervisory development course designed to create a training situation permitting maximum participation and self-direction of training by supervisors themselves.

Lindbom, Theodore R. and Wesley Osterberg.

Evaluating the results of supervisory training. *Personnel*, vol. 31, no. 3, November 1954, pp. 224-228.

Discusses three levels at which results of supervisory training may be measured. Suggests that appraisal may be made first, at the classroom or training room level; second, by the supervisor's actual behavior on the job; and third, by the behavior of supervised employees. While concluding that third general level of evaluation is probably most meaningful, any one type of evaluation is better than none at all.

Mosel, James N. and Harry J. Tsacnaris.

Evaluating the supervisor training program. *Journal of personnel administration and industrial relations*, vol. 1, no. 2, April 1954, pp. 99-104.

Evaluates effectiveness of a supervisor training program by using as a standard the change in attitudes and understanding of human relations on part of supervisor.

Roethlisberger, Fritz J.

Training supervisors in human relations. *Harvard business review*, vol. 29, no. 5, September 1951, pp. 47-57.

Criticizes much of the current supervisory training, which sermonizes and lectures, and tells supervisors how they should behave and what their attitudes should be, instead of letting them learn from reflecting upon and evaluating their own experience.

Selected Supervisory Training Manuals

Honolulu. Department of civil service. Division of training and employee relations.

Basic supervision. Honolulu, 1955. 1 v.

Instructor's manual for an in-service training program on basic supervision. Some of the topics covered include responsibilities of a supervisor, the supervisor as a leader, human relations, techniques of supervision, problems of supervision and training employees.

Michigan. Civil service commission.

Supervisory human relations source book. Rev. ed. Lansing, 1956. 29 pp. (Training manual no. 4)

Uses question and answer method to provide supervisors with a self-teaching manual

"containing enough basic information to enable him to understand the fundamentals of good human relations."

Covers such subjects as the supervisor's, the employee's and management's part in human relations, methods for improving human relations, and some objectionable employee characteristics.

Pasadena. Personnel department.

Instructor's manual for management development; complete lesson plans for conference discussions. 3d rev. Pasadena, 1954. 206 pp.

Instructions for conducting a comprehensive program in fundamentals of supervision for all levels of supervisors. Emphasizes human element in individual and group relationships, but touches on all areas of supervisor's job.

U.S. Department of agriculture.

Guide posts for supervisors; practical guide sheets for self improvement, career development, supervisory training. Washington, 1951. 1 v.

Includes a supervisor's creed, overall policy statement, framework for operations and 20 guide sheets on subjects such as: work planning, housekeeping responsibilities, selecting personnel, employee orientation, training, communications, work assignments, motivation, evaluating work, disciplinary actions, methods of appraising supervision and career development.

U.S. Department of the air force.

Guide for supervisors. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1955. 268 pp. (Air force manual no. 50-20)

Contains training material on techniques and methods to be used in good supervision. Presents pointers and discussion on how to improve the work situation, get the work out, train workers, and work with people.

U.S. Department of the army.

Introduction to supervision. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1954. 54 pp. (Civilian personnel pamphlet no. 41-A)

Presents plan and guidance material for training civilian employees in new supervisory positions. Contains outlines for five group conferences, together with suggestions for on-the-job training.

U.S. Department of the navy. Administrative office.

Departmental supervisor training. Washington, 1954. 119 pp.

Summary of experience gained from series of supervisory training programs offered by the Navy Department. Presents the background of the program, an analysis of the subject matter, discussion of training techniques which have been tested, with an analysis of their success or failure, and a detailed description of the organization of the program.

U.S. Treasury department. Bureau of accounts.

Conference leader's guide; leadership in supervision. Washington, 1951. 83 pp.

Outline of four conferences to assist supervisors in better handling of human relations on the job. Sections include: The supervisor as a leader; Motivating employees; Solving problems of job adjustment; Discipline and grievances.

U.S. Veterans administration. Office of personnel.

Leader's guide for essentials of supervision. Washington, 1954. 83 pp. (Training guide TG5-11)

Basic management course for effective supervision. Presents principles and practices of effective management essential for successful supervision and efficient operations.

Book Reviews

How to Communicate Policy and Procedure. Joseph D. Cooper. New London, Conn.: Bureau of Business Practice and National Foremen's Institute, Division of Vision, Inc., 1956. 212 pp. \$12.50.

The first words of the text describe the author's intent—"a book on looseleaf manuals . . . sets forth a system—or science—or art—for producing and managing written instructions in business." Nevertheless, it is not an easy book to classify. It is a manual, yet more than a manual. It is for business use, yet its examples and its recommendations are equally from and for government. It is a "how to" book, and also a "how to understand" book. And this last observation is the key to both a strength and a weakness of the volume.

Institutional environment for communication.—Dr. Cooper has a deep concern that the procedures and instruction writers understand the nature of organization and of behavior within organizations. So, for example, he analyzes and classifies organization by types of growth: "acorn" growth, "mushroom" growth, and "hybrid" growth; forms of organizations are classified as "integrated" and "holding company." Resistances to instruction systems are also analyzed and classified, as insecurity, bureaucratic antipathy, and lethargy. The role of personal insecurity gets frequent mention as an important element in the successful development and introduction of instructions.

This interpretation of institutional environment has much potential value not only for the manual writers, but for a variety of readers, certainly including top management and the middle levels of management responsible for the consistent execution of instruction systems. At the same time it is obvious that discussion of the nature of institutional behavior may somewhat compromise the use of the book as a manual of procedure, which it certainly is, down to the bedrock details of numbering, weight of paper, types of duplication, etc., etc. Undoubtedly this dualism of presentation is intentional on the part of the author—I point out only that it is both a weakness and a strength of the book.

Values of written instruction systems.—We can probably agree as to the importance of the subject matter treated. Yet Dr. Cooper's outline of the uses and advantages of engineered instructions is an important memory-jogger. He lists reader values, management values and installation values. Reader values are: *communication and reference* and *training and*

indoctrination. Management values are: *communication channeling, organization control and planning, standardization, audit and review, and public relations.* Indirect values of installation which may be so easily overlooked are not by Dr. Cooper:

1. Overlapping, duplication, and conflict are identified and eliminated.
2. Important gaps are identified for developmental attention.
3. Defects in methods are revealed and are often improved during the course of compilation.
4. Unnecessary or obsolete activities are eliminated.
5. The number of forms is often reduced.
6. Responsibilities and authorities are clarified.
7. Organizational relationships may be improved through bringing of interdependent activities into common focus and examination.
8. Participation of employees in the examination of the why and how of operations stimulates their work interest, improves their knowledge of operations, and develops their analytical abilities.

Technical and check list material.—The technical "how to" portions of the book should prove invaluable aids to manual writers. They cover rules for organizing material, standard structural parts including cross-references, numbering systems, how to write and explain, techniques of editing and revising copy, check lists for the writer, use of graphic and other illustrations, loose-leaf manual design, circular design, bound handbook design, revision techniques, reproduction processes, copy preparation, distribution systems, compilation and codification, and installation training. This is only a partial list.

The text is supplemented by four appendices of useful glossary and check list material. Appendix D, for example, contains "Planning and Production Check Lists." The check list for "Physical Production" is illustrative:

1. Body paper stock.
2. Cover stock.
3. Quantities desired.
4. Thumb indexing (cut or printed).
5. Tabs, dividers, other special devices.
6. Binders and punching or permanent binding.
7. Delivery and distribution instructions.
8. Verification of distribution.

Further evaluation.—The book is well illustrated with examples from both government and industry. The variety of sources from which illustrations are drawn is a tribute to the research of the writer.

It may seem carping criticism of a book which has so much to recommend it, but there are minor evidences of lack of close editing and proofreading, and the typography leaves some-

thing to be desired. It is obvious however that these are minor deficiencies in a most important contribution to management.

How to Communicate Policy and Procedure is a unique and essential handbook for both procedures writers and executives.—LOWELL H. HATTERY, *Professor of Government and Public Administration, The American University.*

Punched Card Primer. Burton Dean Friedman. Public Administration Service, Chicago, 1955. 77 pp. \$3.50.

Author Friedman, in layman's language, excellently presents the facts of life about the use of punched cards as an effective tool in business. He expresses neither partiality nor preference for IBM, Remington Rand, or the Underwood Corporation's Samas Punched Card, but states that the basic operations are similar and the choice should be up to the customer.

The use of punched card equipment is simply the application of the fundamentals of scientific management and mass production to office procedures. The equipment mechanically, electrically, or electronically combines and organizes record-keeping facts which are punched in paper cards, to prepare various types of records, reports and documents. Punched card methods are fast, accurate, versatile, and economical. A well-managed punched card installation is modern mass production—office variety.

Record-keeping problems are usually secondary to the basic concern of an organization. However, many commercial and governmental functions are essentially paper-work tasks. Record-keeping is not an end in itself, but public administrators must master it if they intend to run many programs efficiently.

Punched Card Primer is directed to those considering the installation of punched card equipment. The author hopes that it will answer many questions for the administrator who is aware that punched cards exist, who has heard sales talks about them, and who wants them discussed by one who has learned about them the hard way.

Recording, classifying, and summarizing facts, and the machines performing these operations are the heart of a punched card system. The author describes the various machines and the operations but makes no attempt to detail techniques or procedures.

Unlike the people working in a punched card installation, machines have no ailing grandmothers, wayward spouses, or unpredict-

able lovers. They do not daydream, gossip, or take time off without notice. They can even work overtime without falling asleep on their feet the next day. Machines do break down occasionally, but their manufacturers try always to have service engineers available to repair them.

Except where punched card methods have been introduced, office procedures as such have remained generally unchanged. Punched card methods do not simply modify office routines, but involve the introduction of radically different methods of performing office work. That difference offers an invitation and a challenge. The introduction of punched card equipment requires the executive to think in terms of a new medium. Card systems are not prefabricated; the very fact that card methods permit variety in operations requires new managerial know-how. The change to card methods requires a complete revaluation of clerical work and of record-keeping and reporting needs. It requires orienting the mind to a new concept of how that work will be done and those reports prepared. It requires changes in attitude and method, not only on the part of those who will operate it but also on the part of those who will provide source information or use punched card files and reports. Given existing source documents, punched card methods can produce counterparts of existing reports, but the sequence of steps required to produce those reports cannot be expected to parallel that of the existing procedure. The use of punched cards permits repeated manipulations of facts so that many reports and analyses may be produced from the same data.

The major benefits are speed, extra information and reports, and possible savings. The most important benefit is the ability to do existing tasks faster and to provide new and valuable facts as well.

How does an administrator know whether to go to all the trouble of considering a punched card installation? The decision must be made separately by each prospective user. He must decide what kinds of jobs he can and would do with punched cards. There is no easy way to decide whether a particular job is a potential punched card application, and there are no cut-and-dried formulas for deciding whether to set up a machine installation. The prospective user has to do a lot of hard work before deciding, and he must establish his own basis for the decision.

Punched card methods can be effectively used to perform existing office tasks and make new facts available in the process. The methods are suited to accounting, statistical, and

other record-keeping work. The variety of punched card applications is limitless and a given punched card job may be done in various ways.

This book can be read in a couple of hours and is highly recommended to personnel administrators, executives, and technicians, whether you presently have, or have ever contemplated the installation of a punched card system.—FRANCIS P. KELLY, *Assistant Deputy Director, Michigan Civil Service Commission*.

Position Evaluation Techniques: A Discussion and Appraisal. A report of the work group on Development of Evaluation Techniques, Esther C. Lawton, Chairman. The Society for Personnel Administration, Washington, D. C., 1956. 28 pp. 50¢.

This pamphlet is a report of a work group of the Society for Personnel Administration, a group made up of people who are actively engaged in position classification, but who have been willing and able to look critically at the system within which they work. They state that "we are keenly aware that we have presented no panacea for the problems of position evaluation" but they can justly say that "we have presented . . . the nucleus of a system which we believe would be highly effective and desirable."

One may question points of detail in their presentation, but this will not detract from the fact that they present us with some of the best thinking yet reported in recent literature on federal position classification.

Despite the title, the report will be of interest to management officials and personnel officers as much as it will be to position classifiers.

The report is not without its shortcomings. Parts I and II are difficult reading—nearly impossible to one not steeped in classification concepts; but these parts are not prerequisite to an understanding of Parts III and IV. So the nonclassifier can simply skip them; and I even recommend that Part IV be read first.

Part IV, "Conclusions and Recommendations" lays down the "nucleus of a system" which is so practical that one first questions why it is not already in use. The answer can be inferred from the study as a whole, although it is not made explicit in the report. It is that the system is more or less in use for positions and by agencies not covered by the Classification Act, and that some agencies under the Act have experimented with these recommendations. The report makes the point further that the restrictive nature of the Act, and the

limited delegations of authority to agencies under it, obstructs such experimentation and improvements; and gives rise to the "weaknesses and malpractices found in the existing evaluation system."

Part III, "Current Practices; The Weaknesses and Malpractices Found in Existing Evaluation Systems" is a critical diagnosis of the problems, most of which stem largely from the Classification Act and its current interpretations. It is critical, but not negative. It is the positive thinking upon which the recommendations in Part IV are based.

Part I, "Analysis and Appraisal of Position Evaluation Techniques and Practices," and Part II, "Approaches to Position Evaluation," are difficult partly because they attempt too much. They attempt to survey the whole field of position evaluation theory and practice and its application to the federal program. But this attempt develops the fundamental conclusions that no one system is applicable to all kinds of work, and that a variety of systems will be required to meet the program needs of the federal service.

The attempt also emphasizes the need for more extensive study and gives basis for the conclusion that "work groups of the professional societies like the Society for Personnel Administration can do part of the job" but "much more effective provision should be made by organizational arrangements in the Civil Service Commission . . . to pool the findings and the considered judgments of all interested persons," and to develop and effectuate other improvements recommended in this report.

It is symptomatic of the all-pervading weakness in the present program that this pamphlet stands virtually alone as an organized reappraisal of the needs of the federal service, and that it represents the efforts of a volunteer group entirely outside of any "organizational arrangements in the Civil Service Commission" to initiate such a reappraisal or to capitalize on such efforts.—JOHN BAMBERG, *Classification and Wage Officer, Region 2, U. S. Bureau of Reclamation*.

Public Personnel Administration. O. Glenn Stahl. Harper & Bros., New York, N. Y., 1956. 4th ed. of Mosher, Kingsley, and Stahl. 628 pp. \$6.00.

First published in 1936 under the authorship of William E. Mosher and J. Donald Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration* has been at least a principal reference work and, in many

instances, the chief guide for those who have worked or dabbled in public personnel administration for a generation. Glenn Stahl prepared the 1950 revision, with the cooperation of Donald Kingsley, and assumes sole authorship with this new edition.

Old acquaintances of the treatise will not be long lost in this new edition. In fact one can find whole paragraphs of the first edition still intact, with original footnotes appended, and many of the same section headings. But Stahl has in the last two editions placed his mark upon the book, as well as deleting obsolete and now irrelevant material and adding correcting and more recent information.

One should not minimize Stahl's contribution to the book through this cutting, patching, and correcting, for he has both kept the book informationally up to date and inserted the ideas coming from a maturer profession's insights into its problems into the original patterns of the book. Meanwhile he has compacted large portions of the Mosher-Kingsley material beneficially for most readers. In addition, he has produced new chapters on the operating personnel office and international personnel administration in the third edition and on career system patterns and public service ethics, as well as an expanded summary chapter for this fourth edition. Withal, the book is nearly as short as the first edition, and shorter than the intermediate ones.

By way of example of the "new wine in old bottles," the latest edition displaces the short section on age limits in relation to recruitment which had largely come down from the first edition, emphasizing the difference between British and American practice and cautioning against hiring older persons. In its place the new edition suggests, with minor reservations about selection and training, that "arbitrary age limits for selection, other than a minimum necessary for the welfare of children, may be abandoned except for occupations making extraordinary physical demands. . . ." (p. 69) It is still quite desirable to catch them while they are young, but "A combination of wars and an aging population have taught us, however, that we can no longer limit our selection to the younger person." The "potential services of the able older worker cannot be ignored." (p. 68) There are numerous such instances in which the traditional dogmas of the merit system give way, at least partially, to the views of those who seek inventively to meet personnel problems as they find them.

The new chapter on career system patterns consists of an analysis of the facts and claims

about different public service career systems. The author notes that it is possible to distinguish between career systems in which one is tied to a program, such as highway construction, and systems in which individuals may move from program to program and organization unit to organization unit or even from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. The feasibilities of the second depend on the degrees of occupational specialization and the utility of employees' specializations in various units. Program tied careers, it is noted, may not be limited to a particular jurisdiction, but may entail movement from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. The author would encourage both sorts of career mobility where employment conditions and specialized skills permit.

The distinction between closed careers, in which entry is normally made at the lowest rung, and open careers, in which entry is possible at upper levels, is explored. The conclusion is reached that their differences are not so great as is usually claimed, for closed career systems are regularly violated by lateral entry when services are expanded and because the open system gives in practice good opportunities for promotion to those who enter at lower rungs. Most of the analysis is, however, devoted to the systems in which, on the one hand, status and pay depend on the job and, on the other, in which attention is on the individual and his progress through a scale of ranks. Stahl concludes that the former may facilitate short-range management planning, the latter long-range planning; and that in job definition, promotion, and pay the systems seem to be getting closer together. He suggests that there is room for both systems in the same jurisdiction, with the person-oriented system having its greatest possibilities in executive positions, scientific research, and personal secretaries to executives. The nuances and details cannot be conveyed briefly, but he makes it clear that position classification is not likely to die soon, although classifiers need to brace themselves for the shock of knowing of some employees who are, from the point of view of the Baruch canons, positionless. (How can we have a real employee without an abstract employee?)

The new chapter on public service ethics in a democracy, in addition to leading the reader to the rich literature produced on this subject in recent years, makes a number of thoughtful points. High standards of behavior are built into the public service, Stahl believes. Allowing for exceptions, most career employees were "attracted to the public service because of their zeal for identification with a larger good than

some narrow group interest. It is for this reason, as well as the demands of office itself, that we find the highest moral standards in public employment." (p. 418) The greatest risks are not personal peccadilloes, but specialization. "Specialization, in the operating programs of government and in pressure groups on the outside, is probably more often the source of unethical behavior in relation to the maintenance of the integrity of democratic institutions than is outright corruption." (p. 419)

The difficult ethical issues can be suggested by the questions: "How far can individual initiative be permitted and fostered within the hierarchy and still leave a proper role for 'institutional (or collective) responsibility'? Where does 'zeal for the right' end and insubordination begin? When does loyalty to a profession become disloyalty to the hierarchy?" (p. 421) For the future the author asks for better recognition of the existence and continued need in a democracy for a vital ethic for public service.

The new concluding chapter indicates in condensed form better than any other portion of the book the changed direction of the book. A few quotations will make the point. "To create satisfactions and to afford opportunities for self-realization for the work force are objectives worthy of the systematic attention of responsible executives in a democratic government." (p. 578) Personnel administration is "moving more and more away from faith in the infallibility of arbitrary procedures and more and more toward development of and reliance on the judgment of men." (p. 578) "The conception of a virtuous personnel agency holding out year after year against a wicked and irresponsible operating management is fading. Personnel management has improved where there has been a proper executive climate, and there is little enduring hope for it where executive leadership is poor or uninterested." (pp. 578-79) Big government is here to stay, but "Public management in general and public personnel operations in particular can never rise much above what the public expects of them." (p. 580) "Much has been achieved, or at least verbalized, but greater stress is still needed on the human relations aspects of management." (p. 579) "No more important proposal can be made than the suggestion that sufficient funds be made available to enable the personnel agency to carry on research as one of its normal and essential responsibilities. . . . Trial and error, informed guessing, and exchange of professional opinion—while useful—do not constitute a firm basis for solid progress." (p. 581)

Stahl expresses in his Preface the hope that

this edition may have more enduring qualities than previous ones. However, it would appear to the reviewer that he should be encouraged to start planning the next edition. His perception of the personnel specialist's role as an arm of management needs to be applied more fully to much of the content. There is still too much Merit System cant in the book and not enough personnel management. There is, for instance, no recognition in the book that many city managers and unions, although highly interested in personnel practices, prefer having no formal merit system.

Much of the book is still cast in the themes of resisting and outwitting the dirty politicians. Let us, instead, accept the analysis of relevant political behavior as part of the study of public personnel administration. The dirty politicians are the guys who nominate the noble executives whom the up and coming personnel men want to be the arms of. Let us face it gratefully, as well as gracefully, that we do have competing parties and factions in many jurisdictions and that they are parts of the general governmental process of which personnel administration is also a part.

Let us in considering compensation recognize that legislators' calculations about all those employees and their voting relatives may be as significant and valid factors in pay determinations as price indexes or comparable rates. And while mentioning compensation, let us not have another revised chapter on the subject in which unions show up only incidentally as weak or as obnoxious pressure groups. As the author shows that he knows elsewhere in the book, unions are in many jurisdictions very significant in the determination of pay in budget making seasons.

The following are in the category of minor reservations. The materials on morale and worker psychology, although including a new section on mental health, are not as sophisticated as the better industrial personnel materials. They do not reflect much of the newer psychological and anthropological approaches to these matters. In discussing loyalty on page 428, the book gives a false definition of treason. Treason can be committed only by aiding a state with which we are at war.

A major reservation must be made with regard to the material on staffing. Although genuflections are made toward open examinations, multiple-class examinations, and similar devices of flexibility, the general treatment tells of recruitment and examination for relatively narrow classes of positions (or even individual positions) and the production of a

register which will serve for some time. It is submitted that in the labor market which has prevailed for most of the last fifteen years this traditional approach makes little sense. Where can prospective employees be stored while remaining on a register or while such recruiting and examination procedures are run out? Such places of storage as provisional appointments, less desirable positions in the jurisdiction, in student status, or in the military services occur

to one. Hasn't provisional appointment become the common way to snare a skilled employee or even many a likely trainee? Do not the pretenses embodied in the conventional patterns of open competitive examination need to be identified and removed from the practices in order for public personnel administration to earn the respect it greatly needs?—KARL A. BOSWORTH, *Associate Professor of Government, University of Connecticut.*

Book Notes

Careers for College Graduates in New York State Government. New York State Department of Civil Service. Gov. Alfred E. Smith State Office Building, Albany, New York, 1956. (Individual copies are free of charge.)

The New York State Civil Service Commission has prepared this attractive booklet to introduce young people, particularly college graduates and soon-to-be graduates, to career opportunities in the state government. It gives information on how to apply for state employment, describes the college series of examinations and the public administration internships, and then gives detailed information about each professional field. The last section lists the basic facts about terms of employment: location of jobs, salaries, promotions, vacation and sick leave, job security, and retirement. This is a good-looking, well presented story of the professional employment picture in New York state.

Disability Retirement in Industrial Pension Plans. W. Michael Blumenthal. Industrial Relations Section, Department of Economics and Sociology, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey, 1956. 62 pp. \$2.00.

A recent significant trend in protecting employees against economic hazards is the provision for retirement due to disability. This report examines the provisions, practices, and problems concerning early retirement for reasons of disability in 127 leading American companies. Information and data were collected from an intensive survey of the literature on the subject; from the returns on a 5-page written questionnaire sent to more than 100 companies; and personal interviews with company executives and union officers. The report deals with the problem of a reasonable definition of "total" and "permanent" disability; the difficulties in forecasting and computing risk for purposes of insurance; and the

major problem of cost. The author presents the following four objectives as practical and fruitful areas for future planning: (1) improved programs to reduce the incidence of disability, such as preventive medicine and rehabilitation of the disabled; (2) better administrative techniques, particularly more flexible and practical definitions; (3) more attention and research devoted to improving life and health insurance protection after disability retirement; and (4) improved coverage and benefits.

Suggested Draft for Employees' Handbook. Prepared by National Association of Housing and Redevelopment Officials, Personnel and Training Committee, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois, 1955. 50¢.

This booklet is a useful working tool, especially valuable for housing authorities. It does the job of advance planning, and even provides sample items for the preparation of an employee manual. Each page is divided into two columns; the section on the left is a description of items suggested for inclusion in the handbook; the opposite column on the right is a suggested form.

How to Organize and Administer an Employee Training Program. Homer T. Rosenberger. Society for Personnel Administration, Washington, D. C., 1956. \$1.00; SPA members, 50¢.

This manual has been prepared for the use of line executives and training directors in business corporations and government agencies having approximately 1000 or more employees. The author discusses some goals that are basic in the development of a large staff by means of training and attempts to assist executives and training directors to anticipate problems of planning and conducting training courses.

1956 CSA Abstracters

The following members of the Civil Service Assembly have accepted the editor's invitation to serve as abstracters of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1956.

Fred R. Alleman, New Jersey State Department of Civil Service, Trenton, New Jersey (Retired)

Harold N. Baxter, Personnel Technician, City Service Commission, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Charles A. Brown, Administrative Assistant to the Director of Public Works, City of Berkeley, California

Miss Celia L. Carpenter, Regional Merit System Representative, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Boston, Massachusetts

Robert B. Code, Chief of Personnel, Department of Mines and Technical Surveys, Canada

Carl Gardecki, Personnel Technician I, Wayne County Civil Service Commission, Detroit, Michigan

David D. Greenhalgh, Personnel Technician, Civil Service Commission, Los Angeles, California

William Krieg, Personnel Examiner, Municipal Civil Service Board, Portland, Oregon

Gardiner B. Parker, Personnel Technician II, Personnel Department, State of Alabama, Montgomery, Alabama

Lawrence E. Rogers, Personnel Technician, Department of Personnel, St. Louis, Missouri

William G. Waggoner, Employee Relations Officer, U.S. Bureau of Reclamation, Region 2, Sacramento, California

Miss Janet L. Ward, Personnel Technician II, Seattle Office, Washington State Personnel Board

Mrs. Eve K. Williams, Payroll and Personnel, Miami, Florida, Department of Libraries

Absenteeism

Mann, Floyd C., and Sparling, John E., "Changing Absence Rates: An Application of Research Findings." *Personnel*, March, 1956.

—This paper describes one way in which findings from a study of employee absences were put to work to change absence rates. In 1950, information was collected in the Detroit Edison Company on employees' absences and attitudes toward work situations. Two kinds of absence rates were studied—man-days lost and frequency absence. In general it was found that, for men, low absence rates were associated with high satisfactions in the work situation. For both white and blue collar groups, absences were related to how the men felt about their supervisor and other people in their work group. A second major finding was that the days-lost absence rate was much less sensitive than absence-frequency for showing this relationship between attitudes and absences. Meetings of Detroit Edison supervisors led to the preparation of a booklet on absences, including general information about company policy, a discussion of the absence problem in the United States and in the Company, causes of absences in other companies and in Detroit Edison, and suggestions for reducing absences. Suggestions for reducing absences were treated as individual and group problems. Since these conferences, in one year, the frequency-absence rate dropped over 11.4 percent. This trend was modified by increasing rate of frequency-absence and man-days lost in the fourth quarter of 1954, believed to be related to improvement in general business conditions. We believe that two major forces contributed motivationally to this change (i.e.,

over-all 1954 improvement): (1) The chain of supervisor conferences. (2) The establishment of a new statistical series for the measurement of performance. In plant X, absences had been high, and strong administrative action had been taken. In plant Y, supervisor drove with a light rein. Twice as many employees in the latter plant thought the Company absence policy was fair. Several important motivational forces were present, from which conclusions can be drawn: (1) It helps to use your own research findings. (2) It helps also to let your organization participate in the job of defining the need for change.—*Fred R. Alleman.*

Automation

Hattery, L. H., "Electronic Computers and Personnel Administration." *Personnel Administration*, March-April, 1956.—Managers contemplating the installation of an electronic computer should understand (a) the huge cost and physical facilities necessary, (b) scheduling—flow and quality of data fed to the computer requires consummate control, and (c) the major challenge to management; i.e., rethinking operations. Despite these obstacles the pay-off is so great that rapid expansion of office automation is inevitable. Organizations exist that have made the transition without lay-offs, but the fear of displacement exists in employees. The problem of lay-off is minor; however, the fear of lay-off affects morale and stimulates premature resignations. Toughest personnel problems associated with electronic computers are (a) job description and evaluation, (b) recruitment, (c) training, (d) career planning, (e) re-assignment and lay-off, and (f) resulting morale and employee relations. A mammoth computer system involves many changes and adjustments. The personnel officer has a responsibility to co-operate with managers to reassure affected personnel and to properly motivate employees to contribute positively to the success of the new system. Teamwork is necessary to make the new systems of maximum usefulness. It is of primary importance for federal agencies to realize maximum benefits from electronic computers. The following recommendations are for the federal government; however, they could be applied to private industry with slight modifications: (1) The Civil Service Commission should set up a special study group for consideration of personnel problems associated with computer systems, (2) policy should be liberal and flexible to permit computer systems to be properly staffed for successful operation, (3) personnel staff of the Civil Service Commission and the agencies should be oriented in the funda-

mentals of electronic computer systems, and (4) application of electronic computers to personnel functions should be given fullest consideration.—*Carl Gardecki.*

Communication

Scholz, William, "How to Make Employee Publications Pay Off." *Personnel*, March, 1956.—One needs only to glance at a typical company publication with its columns of personals and studious avoidance of facts about the business, let alone controversial issues, to have grave misgivings as to the value of the medium as it is presently being used. Yet, the fact remains that these publications are so closely interwoven with the entire fabric of employee communication that we cannot seriously consider abandoning them. To reach maximum effectiveness the objectives of a company publication should be re-examined, an editorial policy established, and every item accepted or rejected on the one basis of whether these objectives are being advanced. Objectives of a company communication should include consideration of two things. What employees want to know about the company—its background organization, policies, plans, operations, and how their jobs and futures fit into the scheme of things. And, to provide employees with information they need to avoid confusion caused by widespread economic and ideological fallacies. Improved attitudes, productivity, quality, and profits are the ultimate pay-off of a good communication program, and pay dividends in increased output, reduction of waste and spoilage, avoidance of costly resistance to changing technology, and drastically reduce the most unnecessary losses of all—the tragic lost earnings and profits from slowdowns, walkouts, and strikes.—*William G. Waggoner.*

Eberle, John P., "The Personnel Office Interprets." *Personnel Administration*, January-February, 1956.—A primary function of the personnel office is to provide two-way communication between management and employees. It is in a strategic position to facilitate this process if the staff has free access to top management and the confidence of employees. There must be a willingness on the part of management to communicate. Employee morale depends largely upon the extent to which employee needs are reconciled with organization objectives. The employee publication can be an excellent medium if it is used by management and material is presented clearly, simply, and interestingly. An analysis of employee suggestions may reveal opinions, atti-

tudes, and problems of broader scope. The counseling service can correct misunderstandings by interpreting policies and can pass up to management information of a general nature. Training session methods which provide for two-way communication often reveal underlying employee attitudes. Personnel policy and procedural instructions written in clear simple language can be effective. The personnel officer must have courage and tact to relay bad news as well as good. The grapevine can sometimes be an effective device if employees are encouraged to submit rumors, with or without signature, and the facts are secured and posted promptly. Other media include staff meetings and employee unions.—*Celia L. Carpenter.*

Promotion

Springer, Doris, "Why Employees Refuse Promotion: A Case Study." *Personnel*, March, 1956.—Summarized result study based on North American Aviation, Inc., promotion procedure plan involving employees who declined to be candidates for promotion to the various levels of supervisory positions, and an analysis of their reasons for refusal by using information provided by statements as some indication of attitudes toward acceptance of supervisory responsibilities, a competitive promotion plan, and the value of promotion versus other job factors.

Conclusions: Proportion declining to be considered for leadman positions more than twice as large as proportion of leadman and assistant foreman declining further promotion. Candidates refusing to be leadmen mentioned that they did not want to accept responsibilities of a supervisory nature, or that their physical characteristics made them unqualified, or that they had outside activities that promotion would interfere with. Among the leadmen, largest percentage declined in the belief that they lacked necessary experience. Advancement from leadman to assistant foreman represents greater change in duties and responsibility than takes place between the other levels and probably accounts for this difference. Change in status involved in the promotion had no noticeable effect on decision whether or not to be a candidate.

Reasons for declining to be candidates fell into two general categories: 1) No interest in being promoted from present job. This more frequently from relatively young workers in a lower-level position. It was only in this group that candidates refused to be considered because they did not think they had a chance to be selected, the only reason which implied any

criticism of the promotion plan. 2) Working conditions of the particular opening considered unattractive to the point where they offset any advantages that would accrue from promotion.

Comparison between different job levels revealed importance of working conditions and personal habits of the younger workers, suggesting that they give relatively less emphasis to physical conditions of the job than do older workers.—*Eve K. Williams.*

Public Relations

Janowitz, Morris, and Wright, Deil, "The Prestige of Public Employment: 1929 and 1954." *Public Administration Review*, Winter, 1956.—This research report presents some recent empirical findings on the question of the prestige of public employment and compares the results with those of Professor Leonard White in his pioneer research in 1929. Present studies indicate a long-term and marked increase in the prestige value of public employment. This is in contrast to recent studies which have been focused on the attitudes of select groups of college students toward higher level federal employment. The data which constitute the basis of these studies were gathered from a representative sample survey of 764 members of the adult population in the Detroit metropolitan area. The research was based on an hour-long interview which encompassed a wide investigation of the contacts, attitudes, and evaluations of the public with respect to federal, state, and local agencies and to public administration in general. Topics ranged beyond Mr. White's original objectives but care was taken to duplicate closely some of his key questions to enhance comparisons. Results of the study include the prestige trend from 1940 to 1954; government employment prestige in Canada and Australia; comparison of preference for public or private employment in relation to specific selected occupations; evaluation of courteous attention received from public versus private employees; comparisons by income groups, social class, Negro-white, sex, and educational level; and a study of attitude toward government employment and the proper sphere of government services. Research indicates that the prestige value of public employment has undergone a marked favorable shift since 1930. Private employment *per se* no longer holds higher esteem for the metropolitan population at large, if the Detroit sampling can be considered representative. The groups which express highest evaluation of public employment continue to

be those which Mr. White uncovered: the lower class, the lower status, and the lesser educated. In accounting for the upward trend in prestige two empirical explanations offered are: first, the increased importance of security as a goal in society; and second, the new and more widespread services now performed by government. (Article contains charts on subjects listed above.)—*Janet L. Ward.*

Recruiting

Young, Philip, "The Federal Service Entrance Examination." *Public Administration Review*, Winter, 1953:—One of the most compelling issues facing the federal government today is the need to recruit career personnel who will be qualified to cope with the challenging problems of tomorrow. This is the purpose for which the Federal Service Entrance Examination was conceived and developed. At the end of December, 1955, a preliminary review of the results of the first test given under the new program indicated the objectives might even be exceeded. The fact that applications are accepted continuously appears to be a major factor in its success. A high rate of activity in exhausting and replenishing the lists will further stimulate competition. Present indications are that the tests will be given often and at convenient times. The huge success in this first written test stemmed from an unprecedented promotion campaign planned by the Civil Service Commission. During 1955 the plans were discussed with many officials, and recruiting teams visited more than 900 campuses throughout the country. First attempts at recruiting young people began in 1934 and although successful at the outset it met with serious weaknesses which continued to hamper the program. The Commission based their new approach to the college recruiting problem on the long-range operations of government. Each agency now must plan its personnel needs from five to twenty years ahead. The new program was also set up with certain requirements. The examinations first have to be simple; they must have a broad appeal; operate on a year-round schedule; and must serve to fill a variety of entrance level jobs. The Commission now feels satisfied that this examination fulfills all these requirements. In addition there is not only one ladder of advancement nor is anyone "stuck" in any government job. Specialization is de-emphasized, and the capable and ambitious employee may find unlimited opportunities for advancement.—*Charles A. Brown.*

The "Senior" Civil Service

Somers, Herman M., "Some Reservations About the Senior Civil Service." *Personnel Administration*, January-February, 1956.

And **Reimer, Everett,** "The Case Against the Senior Civil Service." *Personnel Administration*, March-April, 1956.—The plan of the Hoover Commission's Task Force on Personnel and Civil Service for providing able career executives is open to criticism on a number of points. For one thing, it does not recognize that entrance jobs for future administrators should be earmarked, and also the jobs in the career ladders they would ascend and the jobs to which they would eventually graduate. The plan thus fails to provide the training, the security, and the incentive necessary to offer people of the highest calibre as good an opportunity as private industry offers to the most capable. Since there is no provision for the mandatory use of senior civil servants in any class of job, the plan is largely dependent for its success upon the enthusiasm of political officials. The plan proposes to lend prestige to the new senior civil servants by conferring on them a personal rank or status equivalent to that given an admiral or general. This rank is likely to be regarded as a mark of undeserved privilege conferred by the fiat of a board. One of the most striking features of the proposal is the insistence on the political neutrality of the senior civil servants. What kind of men are to be attracted to a service in which they may not even give a Congressional committee their opinion on program policy? To be admitted to the senior service, a person must be recommended by his department head. Why should any official seek to make his most valued employees more mobile? And why should employees who have spent a lifetime climbing the promotion ladder in their particular agency take the risks involved in moving to another agency as a senior civil servant? Another unfavorable feature is that the plan would go a long way toward curtailing the interchange of persons between public and private life by insisting that admission to the senior civil service be confined to those who have spent a minimum of five years in the Civil Service. No civilian closed system has been able to maintain its vitality and effectiveness for very long.—*Lawrence E. Rogers.*

White, Leonard D., "The Case for the Senior Civil Service." *Personnel Administration*, January-February, 1956.—That the career executive service of the federal government can hardly go on without change if it is to fill pres-

ent and future demands has been the conclusion of every study group on this problem for a quarter of a century. Now a plan for building and maintaining a stronger career service in the highest levels has been developed by the Task Force on Personnel and Civil Service of the second Hoover Commission and endorsed by the Commission itself. A senior civil service would be drawn from a group of 1,500 to 3,000 employees holding classified competitive positions in grades GS-15, 16, 17, and 18. They would be selected by a Senior Civil Service Board comprising three qualified citizens, the Director of the Bureau of the Budget, and the Chairman of the U. S. Civil Service Commission, or their alternates. Candidates would be nominated by their agencies after five years of service on the basis of demonstrated administrative ability and of experience in line and staff, in headquarters and field, and preferably in more than one agency. The Senior Civil Service would be concerned with management immediately below top political command, and positions affected would be removed from their present job classification status. Members of the Senior Civil Service would acquire a personal rank similar to a general or flag officer in the armed services. Among its advantages, such a plan conserves more certainly the best career service talent at the highest professional level, protects such employees from exposure to the cross fire of policy or political controversy, and provides a senior civil service politically neutral, protected from the necessity to make policy decisions, foregoing an overt position regarding partisan or controversial measures, and capable of deserving the confidence of both political parties. Along with rank status is the obligation to serve where needed without claim to any particular assignment but with the right to continued employment in the public service and not to be dispossessed from the service for partisan or personal reasons. Thus, a senior civil service increases the flexibility of assignment. It also provides a tested corps of career executives fully prepared to work with each incoming administration which would not be obligated to keep them in their present positions but normally in its own interest to find them appropriate employment. Finally, a senior civil service induces better training and development facilities, and it offers a new incentive to well qualified young men and women to enter the public service and remain in it. It was the view of the Task Force that a bold constructive advance is now needed both to maintain our present supply of administrative talent and to

provide more certainly for its future replenishment.—*Gardiner B. Parker.*

Supervision

Tarnopol, Lester, and Julia, "How Top-Rated Supervisors Differ from the Lower Rated." *Personnel Journal*, February, 1956—Characteristics which distinguish good supervisors from poor in the minds of employees were identified in the course of a survey and supervisory training program conducted in a California public utility. The importance to his employees of the supervisor's personality cannot be overemphasized. The good supervisor takes the initiative in establishing smooth personal working relations with his people. He tends to be even-tempered, consistent, and friendly. He treats his employees as equals, and does not need to use his authority to maintain discipline. He backs up his men under criticism, and his employees agree that he is usually able to achieve good results with their requests. By contrast, the poor supervisors are either too backward or too aggressive to maintain consistent and constructive employee relations. The passive low-rated supervisor is so withdrawn from his group that the vital dynamic relationship which is apparent in the better supervisor is entirely lacking. The overly-aggressive demanding supervisor is not respected because he lacks self-control and has tantrums related to some petty conflict with employees. Workers also quickly lose respect for the supervisor who does not know his job. The good supervisor spends a relatively large part of his time planning the work, then gives his employees a voice in determining how much work they can reasonably be expected to accomplish. With regard to work pace, the poor supervisor is likely to be so passive that each worker sets his own pace, or the deadlines may be set by pressures outside the group. Finally, a supervisory training program which accompanied the survey indicates that attitude changes can be effected. The finding that such training may result in marked improvement in employee relations and supervisory effectiveness has challenging implications.—*David D. Greenhalgh.*

Bailey, Joseph K., "The Essential Qualities of Good Supervisor: A Case Study." *Personnel*, January, 1956.—"A lot has been written on the subject of 'good supervisors.' A lot more has been said about it. The authorities tell us that 'the supervisor is the key man in the organization.' They say that the 'foreman must really

be on the management team.' We read that 'the foreman must be a good leader.' We see and hear a great many statements such as these. *And they are true.* However, these statements are very broad and general, and it is hard for any organization 'to get hold of them' in order to have something definite enough to help its supervisors become *better* supervisors. It would seem necessary, then, for any organization to try to find out *exactly* what it takes to be a good supervisor in that *particular* organization."

The foregoing lines serve as the introductory statement in a survey at the Kelly Air Force Base to find out what it takes to be a good supervisor at the Kelly Air Force Base. The result provided meaningful information to be used as a basis for further investigation within smaller groups. The list of questions was based on what the individual worker desires of his supervisor in order to satisfy his own needs and to further his own cause. Seventy-five items with nine identification or breakdown questions were included in the questionnaire, with space to summarize the individual's ideas concerning good supervision, such as: "To me a good supervisor is a person who is well acquainted with the function of his department and has the ability to manage and understand people."

Employees for this questionnaire survey were randomly selected from every level in the civilian personnel hierarchy—from operative employees up. 769 employees responded. It was apparent that the 16 factors selected as most important could be classified most significantly in relation to four major areas of the supervisor's job: (1) his essential personal characteristics, (2) his ability to handle people, (3) his managerial functions, (4) his housekeeping duties. That Kelly personnel desire to work for supervisors with outstanding personal traits was strikingly evidenced in three ways. First, they named three of these traits among the 16 most important factors: (1) Is fair in dealings with people; (2) Is a man you can believe and trust; (3) Has good self-control. Second, many of the additional factors listed on the blank page of the questionnaire provided for that purpose were directly concerned with personal characteristics of a supervisor. Third, many of their "free" comments reflected this same attitude.—*Eve K. Williams.*

Argyris, Chris, "Research Trends in Executive Behavior." *Advanced Management*, March, 1956.—If an executive dominates policy, dictates the work technique, rewards and penal-

izes he is the directive or autocratic leader. He creates a situation in which subordinates feel dependent. A study showed the directive company making profits but on the other hand it is not the human climate in which subordinates develop. A study of executive behavior in plants with "permissive" executives showed the tension, conflict, frustration and inter-departmental hostility was lower. However productivity was not as high. Why doesn't participative leadership work? If the formal organization follows principles of task specialization, span of control etc., the employees work in situations where they use fewer of their abilities as we go down the line. The employee is placed in a situation that requires him to behave like an infant. We are entering an era when a worker feels satisfied when he is paid more money for his dissatisfaction. Many human problems, then, are the result of organization rather than the executives. Present executives are primarily directive, hardworking, tolerant of frustration and not desirous of focusing on the feelings of others. The executive dilemma is characterized by organizations with apathetic disinterested workers who restrict production which need a directive executive to get things done. On the other hand the directive executive is not best for developing people. How solve the dilemma? (1) Combination of directive and permissive leadership, (2) change of working situation, (3) research on the impact of organizational structure on the employee, (4) executives more aware of their prejudices, (5) executives develop human relation skills.—*Harold N. Baxter.*

Laird, Donald A., "Should a Boss Work at Being Liked?" *Management Methods*, January, 1956.—According to many books on leadership about all one needs for success is a pleasing personality. Operational records of various leaders, however, place likeableness last on the list of necessary equipment. But popularity is not a drawback. A successful leader is well regarded by employees but this is due to his proficiency on other counts. Normal hostility is inevitably directed at the boss, the successful leader being able to face it without feeding it back. He accepts the fact that some hostility is necessary to motivate people and is alert to recognize it in order to channel it constructively. Acceptable leaders are considerably warmer and more likable, indicating that those who keep hostility under control are most likely to succeed as bosses. The good leader is liked because he carries out unpopular tasks in a way which reduces per-

sonal hostility. Blunt, quick criticism accompanied by irritation and threats breeds hostility and dislike and, where an individual is given a chance to answer criticism immediately, less hostility is generated. An analysis of nine aircraft maintenance crews disclosed no evidence that the chief who doled out easy ratings was more acceptable to the men; or of a preference for democratic or autocratic leaders. The outstanding attribute of the popular leader was his ability to evaluate his men solely on their performance and assign jobs on that basis. A demonstration of the far-reaching spiral of emotional feedbacks showed that

when a reprehensible deed was done by someone previously rejected, it was roundly condemned; if committed by a person they had liked, it was approved, or at least condoned. This suggests that the boss who must do unpleasant things in line of duty won't suffer too much loss of popularity if he was previously liked and respected. An intrinsically winning personality is an initial asset to the leader—if he follows it with positive leadership traits. But charm is a fringe benefit and the successful leader gets things done *and* is accepted on a personal as well as technical level, by members of his crew.—Robert B. Code.



Letters to the Editor

Agrees with Author

May I congratulate Dorothy Adkins on her very thorough analysis of "some problems posed by the rule of three."

In my opinion, the rule of three operates as a decided deterrent to good placement work. The chances of "matching men and jobs" aren't too good under such a rule.

Its inherent weaknesses become increasingly apparent under a program of continuous examining and recruiting. The top three scores on a list keep fluctuating up and down, sometimes in an erratic manner. Timing of the various steps in the examining and appointing sequence become all important. With names constantly coming on and going off the list, almost anything can happen—or can be made to happen—under the rule of three. Momentarily, an individual with a 91 rating may be number 7 on a list, and the next day he may be number 1. It would certainly seem that if he is worthy of being considered one day, he should be equally worthy of being considered the next day.

The rule of three simply isn't geared to the concept of standardized testing. The individual's chances aren't primarily in terms of how

well he measures up against consistent and relatively unchanging standards. No matter how good he is or how well he might fit into a specific opening in a specific unit, he can at times be ruled completely out of the picture by the vagaries of the examining process—and the "rule of three." At one time, top scores may be 95, 93, 92, 91, 90, etc.; at another, they may be 95, 81, and 70. Who can justify certification and consideration of the individual with a 70 rating, in the latter case, and exclusion of those with 91 and 90 in the former case?

The rule of three, and the rule of five, etc., are merely watered-down versions of an unsound rule of one. The Minnesota approach is a step in the right direction—that of certifying in terms of the final rating of the individual, rather than his "rank" at the moment. It seems to me that we should attempt to develop a system under which certification would be made of a sufficient number of persons (where available) whose total qualifications are broadly equivalent. A system of certifying individuals from within a small number of categories, such as "outstanding," "well-qualified," "qualified," etc., would appear to approach this objective. —JOHN M. POSEGATE, *Merit System Supervisor, State of Arizona.*

Disagrees with Book Reviewer

In the January, 1956, issue of *Public Personnel Review*, Professor Herbert Kaufman reviewed the book *Organization and Management: Theory and Practice* by Dr. Catheryn Seckler-Hudson. In brief, Professor Kaufman's criticism of the book is that it did not provide a systematic survey of methodical approaches to organization and management as currently embodied in studies in small group behavior and in other relevant work by sociologists, anthropologists, economists and psychologists.

In brief, also, I take hearty exception to Professor Kaufman's critique by pointing out that Dr. Seckler-Hudson's book was not aimed at the readership typified by Professor Kaufman, who apparently is largely interested in erudite works of scholarship rather than in works of practical application for the benefit of the daily practitioner.

I have both studied and taught under Dr. Seckler-Hudson at The American University since 1944. In these 12 years there are few people whom I have met who combine so well a knowledge of both the theoretical and the practical aspects of administration. This does not mean that Dr. Seckler-Hudson is obliged to display her own erudition in everything she writes. *Organization and Management: Theory and Practice* is intended to be just what Professor Kaufman criticizes—a check list guide for the management practitioner. As such it cannot rationalize the theory of every point raised. Nor can it supply documentation as to the collateral areas of investigation pursued either in antiquity or by contemporary researchers.

In her work as Chairman of the Department of Government of The American University, Dr. Seckler-Hudson is daily brought into contact with mature administrators from among all the Government departments who either counsel with her regarding their institutional training requirements or who sit in her classes and in those of her own faculty to bring into the academic arena the problems with which they daily wrestle and for which they seek practical guidance. In addition to her academic

work, Dr. Seckler-Hudson has had full time employment in the Government, has done consulting work for Government agencies and has lectured to many of the individual Departments and agencies.

It is from this type of interaction that Dr. Seckler-Hudson has distilled the check lists and working criteria.

When I first received a publication notice of the book, I immediately purchased a copy for my own library. When I am working on a particular management problem on which I seek some stimulation—if only as a point of departure—I find it quite convenient to riffle through Dr. Seckler-Hudson's book. It is sufficient for me simply to see a question raised, among several in a check list, without having all the answers to that question provided. Professor Kaufman says that this is one of the deficiencies of the book: It raises questions and doesn't answer them.

I would not want all these questions answered because the book would no longer serve the purpose intended. It would become an encyclopedic tome but would fail of its purpose in any event because it could not answer all of the subsidiary questions I might have in mind or that any other reader might have in mind, as related to his unique situation.

The proof of the pudding is in its eating. Just as I write this I learned that the Department of State, as one user, has selected this book as one of the 10 books selected by the Foreign Service Institute as a bibliography from which foreign service posts throughout the world may select books for their own use as management aids.

Really, Professor Kaufman misses the point entirely. I think he is more preoccupied with scholarly documentation, as witness the extent to which he has documented his book review, than with the imparting of practical knowledge to the mature management practitioner. He missed completely the point of Dr. Seckler-Hudson's book which is to give the mature reader checking points to stimulate his own independent analysis of his working problems.—JOSEPH D. COOPER, *Executive Assistant, The Deputy Postmaster General*.

Testing Techniques of Yesteryear

(Continued from page 110)

Sheet #2 - Arithmetical Test

- 11 - Add the following: Seventeen thousand nine hundred and thirty-five, Nine thousand three hundred and seventeen, three hundred and fifty-three, Five thousand nine hundred and forty, and Two hundred and fifty-three thousand two hundred and fourteen.
- 12 - Subtract: Seven hundred and forty nine thousand two hundred and ninety-three, from seven million nine hundred and six thousand.
- 13 - Multiply: Seven thousand eight hundred and forty-five, by twenty-nine.
- 14 - If a policeman received \$63.00 per month, and is fined seven days pay, how much will he receive out of his month's pay, allowing thirty days per month?

Sheet #3 - Officers' Duties, etc.

- 15 - What experience have you had tending to fit you for the position of Patrolman in this city? Answer fully.
- 16 - If you were an officer acting under a warrant of arrest, and were refused admittance to any building where you had reason to believe the person to be arrested is concealed, what would you do?
- 17 - State as many cases as you can when an officer may arrest a person without a warrant.
- 18 - If you should see a person selling liquor over a bar on Sunday, what would be your duty?
- 19 - What is the duty of a Hotel or Saloon Keeper in regard to window curtains or screens in bar rooms?
- 20 - What is the duty of a police officer in regard to obedience to his superior officers?
- 21 - Write a telegram of not less than 25 words to the Chief of Police in Rochester, New York, informing him of a crime committed in this city.
- 22 - Can a policeman engage in any other business?
- 23 - Is it the duty of an officer to give his name and number when asked?
- 24 - When citizens make inquiries, how are they to be treated?

Chairman Warner had Lizzie Smith make fifteen typewritten copies of the above questions for this commission.

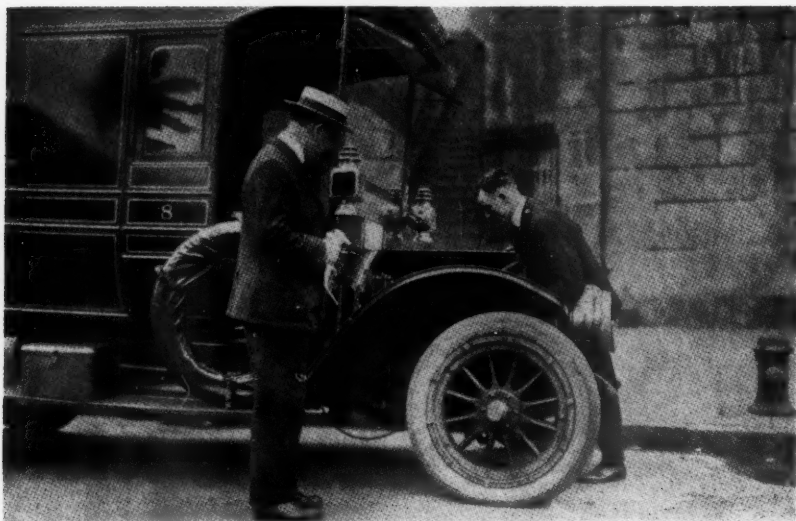
The following named applicants completed the examination within the given time: L. D. Bullard, John A. Snyder, M. Collins, W. Tompkins, A. D. Smith, J. L. Parkes, T. J. Sullivan, J. Walk, Jon Westra, Wm. Marquette, M. F. Meyers, and T. Gillespie.

Wm. Dueger did not finish examination.

On motion adjourned to Thursday evening, May 31st.

F. H. Sayles, Secretary

In Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

*Practical Test for Chauffeur.*

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Salary \$900-\$1,200 (Inc.) a year

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August 4, 1915 (Practical Examination)

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The DUTIES of this position are to drive and take care of automobiles, report daily and keep constantly in touch with the office for instructions in connection with the work; to take machine out each morning; to meet appointments as required during the day; to return machine to garage at night; to oversee cleaning and polishing of machine and to keep mechanism in proper running order; to overhaul various parts and make repairs in case of necessity.

REQUIREMENTS: Applicants must pass a physical examination before filing applications. They must also possess a chauffeur's license.

SUBJECTS AND WEIGHTS: Training and Experience (3); Physical Test (2); Practical Questions and Test (5).

In the Practical Test every detail of running an automobile was shown by each candidate.

Number of Applicants	40
Number Attending	36
Number Passing	22

Special Examiner: Franklin E. Hodge; assisted by the regular Examining Staff.

In Cook County, Illinois

2

CIVIL SERVICE NEWS

Thursday, October 23, 1919.

INFORMATION FOR
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Further Lists of Coming Tests Previously Announced, Details of Notices of Calling Examinations, Sample Questions, and Other Public Information helpful to applicants for civil service positions and to employees, also Notary Public service, may be secured conveniently and free of charge by subscribers of CIVIL SERVICE NEWS, on personal application to the Information Secretary, 822 Reaper Block, 105 N. Clark St., Chicago.

NEW TESTS ANNOUNCED
SINCE LAST ISSUE.

(Continued from Page 1.)

Albion, Ironwood, Mich., Watechs, Ill., Ashland, Wis., for same place, Nov. 12.
Director of Zoo, Lincoln Park, \$2,100 to \$5,000 a year, Nov. 12.
Fireman, United States, \$600 a year at Moline, Ill., for same place, Nov. 17.
Hospital interne, United States, \$100 a month and maintenance, Nov. 19.
Inspector of Musical Instruments, United States, \$1,500 to \$1,500 a year, Nov. 22.
Leckmaker, United States, \$4.50 a day, Nov. 25.
Mechanician Qualified as Mechanical Store and Tool Room Keeper, \$900 to \$1,000 a year, Nov. 19.
Physical Laboratory Helper, United States, \$800 to \$900 a year, Nov. 18, Dec. 10, Jan. 7.
Plasterer, United States, \$75 a month, Nov. 25.
Superintendent of Transportation, United States, \$1,800 to \$2,400 a year, Nov. 28.
Plaster, South Park, 74 cents to 75 cents an hour, Oct. 29.
Veterinarian, United States, \$1,500 to \$1,600 a year.
Lay Inspector, \$1,000 a year, Nov. 18, Dec. 10.

SOME COMING TESTS PREVIOUSLY ANNOUNCED.

Assistant Auditor, United States, grade 1, \$1,400 to \$1,800 a year; grade 2, \$2,000 to \$2,500 a year, Nov. 19.
Assistant in U.S. Nat. United States, United States, \$1,400 to \$1,800 a year, Nov. 5.
Assistant Economist in Marketing United States, grade 1, \$1,800 to \$2,400 a year, grade 2, \$2,400 to \$2,800 a year, Nov. 5.
Attending Nurse, Cook County, \$55.00 to \$72.13 a month and maintenance, Oct. 15.
Automobile Mechanic, United States, \$1,000 a year, Oct. 28.
Automobile Mechanic, United States \$1,000 to \$1,400 a year, Nov. 1.

SAMPLE QUESTIONS
FOR PENDING TESTS

Those from Former Examinations Seldom Repeated but Give Ideas of Tests.

HOSPITAL GUARD (MALE)
COOK COUNTY,
ILLINOIS.

Questions Asked by Cook County Civil Service Commission in Examination Held Nov. 7, 1913.

- 1 and 2. Write a paragraph of about 150 to 200 words, giving your views of what restrictions and conditions should be imposed by a good set of hospital rules upon visitors to a hospital with 2,000 sick poor in it. Give reasons for your views.
 3. When can a hospital guard make an arrest?
 4. What breaches of good order or discipline are most common among tuberculosis patients in advanced stages? Among old and infirm men?
 5. Should an old woman in an infirmary be allowed to take snuff? Give your reasons. What measures should be taken to prevent feeble minded patients from wandering away or injuring themselves when out on grounds?
 6. Upon making the rounds, you discover a man running away from a building. After you caught him, what would you do with him if he were an inmate? If he were not an inmate? What kind of a report should be made of this occurrence and to whom?
 7. Name ten articles which a visitor should not be allowed to take into a hospital and which they are likely to take in if not watched?
 8. Name ten ~~articles~~ ^{articles} which visitors to a hospital should not be allowed to take into a hospital and which they are likely to take in if not watched?
- Answers:
1. A year, Oct. 28.
2. A year, Oct. 28.
3. A year, Oct. 28.
4. A year, Oct. 28.
5. A year, Oct. 28.
6. A year, Oct. 28.
7. A year, Oct. 28.
8. A year, Oct. 28.

should not be allowed to take into a home for the aged and infirm poor and which they are likely to take in if they are not watched.

9. The storekeeper reports that supplies are being missed from the store-room. You are directed to locate the leak. Name all the steps that might be taken to discover the culprit and what suggestions would you make to prevent a recurrence of the loss.

10. What would you do if a visitor came to the hospital entrance after visiting and demanded admittance, stating that his cousin was seriously ill?

The nurse in the insane ward calls for help while you are engaged in a verbal argument with a visitor demanding admittance which you cannot permit; what would you do under the circumstances and why?

Arithmetic.

1. Add the following:
441,402; 98; 3,456,877; 7,859,653;
716,535; 658,974; 9,287; 297,526.
2. A man purchased 2 horses for \$1,250.00. He sold 1 for \$895.00 and 1 for \$548.00. Did he gain or lose on the transaction and how much? (Show all work.)
3. If \$420.00 will buy forty-eight (48) tons of coal, what is the cost of one ton? (Show all work.)
4. A man earns 45 cents an hour; what is the amount of his pay check for 6 days of eight hours each? (Show all work.)

Composition and Penmanship.

PENMANSHIP WILL BE MARKED ON THIS PAPER.

Write an article of about 150 words on the necessary qualifications of a person applying for the position of Hospital Guard.

DO NOT SIGN YOUR NAME.

More attention will be paid to form, punctuation, paragraphing and ease of expression than to the actual subject matter.

Answers:
1. \$11,000,000.
2. \$1,250.00 - \$895.00 - \$548.00 = \$1,250.00 - \$1,443.00 = -\$193.00. Loss of \$193.00.
3. \$420.00 ÷ 48 = \$8.75.
4. 45 cents an hour × 8 hours × 6 days = \$252.00.

Civil Service News
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SECOND AND THIRD CLASS POSTMASTER, United States (all third class positions and second class paying \$5.00 a year or less). This is a correspondence course of ten lessons taking up all the subjects of the examination and divided as follows: Letter writing, three lessons; arithmetic, six lessons; statement of training and experience, one lesson. Women are admitted to the examinations as well as men, and are not discriminated against in making appointments. Tuition \$10. The lessons will be sent immediately upon receipt of the tuition. Examinations to establish lists for various offices will be held from time to time as vacancies occur. (Course \$8.)

For those too busy to take the full course, five of the more important lessons selected from the ten lesson course may be taken at half the above rates. (Course \$15A.)

RAILWAY MAIL CLERK, United States, \$900 to \$1,200 a year, may apply for appointments made. Ten lessons by correspondence only. Three of the lessons are on arithmetic, three on letter writing, three on geography, and one on spelling plain copy. Examination Nov. 28. Tuition \$10. (Course \$16.)

RURAL CARRIER, United States. A correspondence course of ten lessons taking up all the subjects of the examination, is offered. The course may begin at any time. Tuition \$10. (Course \$10.)

A shorter course of five lessons, including the more important lessons of the longer course, is offered for those so situated that time does not permit taking the ten lesson course. Tuition \$5. (Course \$10A.)

CLERK-CARRIER, United States post office service: \$1,000 to \$1,200 a year. May apply for appointments made. Ten lessons by correspondence course only. Tuition \$12. Examinations held in all districts. (Course \$12.)

A five lesson course for clerk-carrier, at half the above rates, is offered for those who have had high school training or its equivalent. (Course \$15A.)

FIRST AND SECOND CLASS POSTMASTER, United States (first class positions and second class paying over \$5.00 a year). This is a preliminary course of ten lessons which may be taken by ac-

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IN THE SOLUTION OF THEIR PERSONNEL
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ELEMENTS OF POSITION CLASSIFICATION IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

KENNETH BYERS, M. ROBERT MONTILLA,
ELMER V. WILLIAMS

Three staff members of the California State Personnel Board collaborated to write a concise treatment of position classification for the non-technician. The report begins with an explanation of what position classification is intended to do, the basic principles followed, and a sample class specification. The second chapter goes into the techniques involved in the installation of a classification plan—job description forms, questionnaire reviews, job audits, allocation lists, specification reviews. The last chapter tells how to maintain the plan. Sample forms are given in an Appendix.

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PERSONALITY TESTS: USES AND LIMITATIONS

FREDERICK GEHLMANN, LEONARD W. FERGUSON,
JOHN F. SCOTT



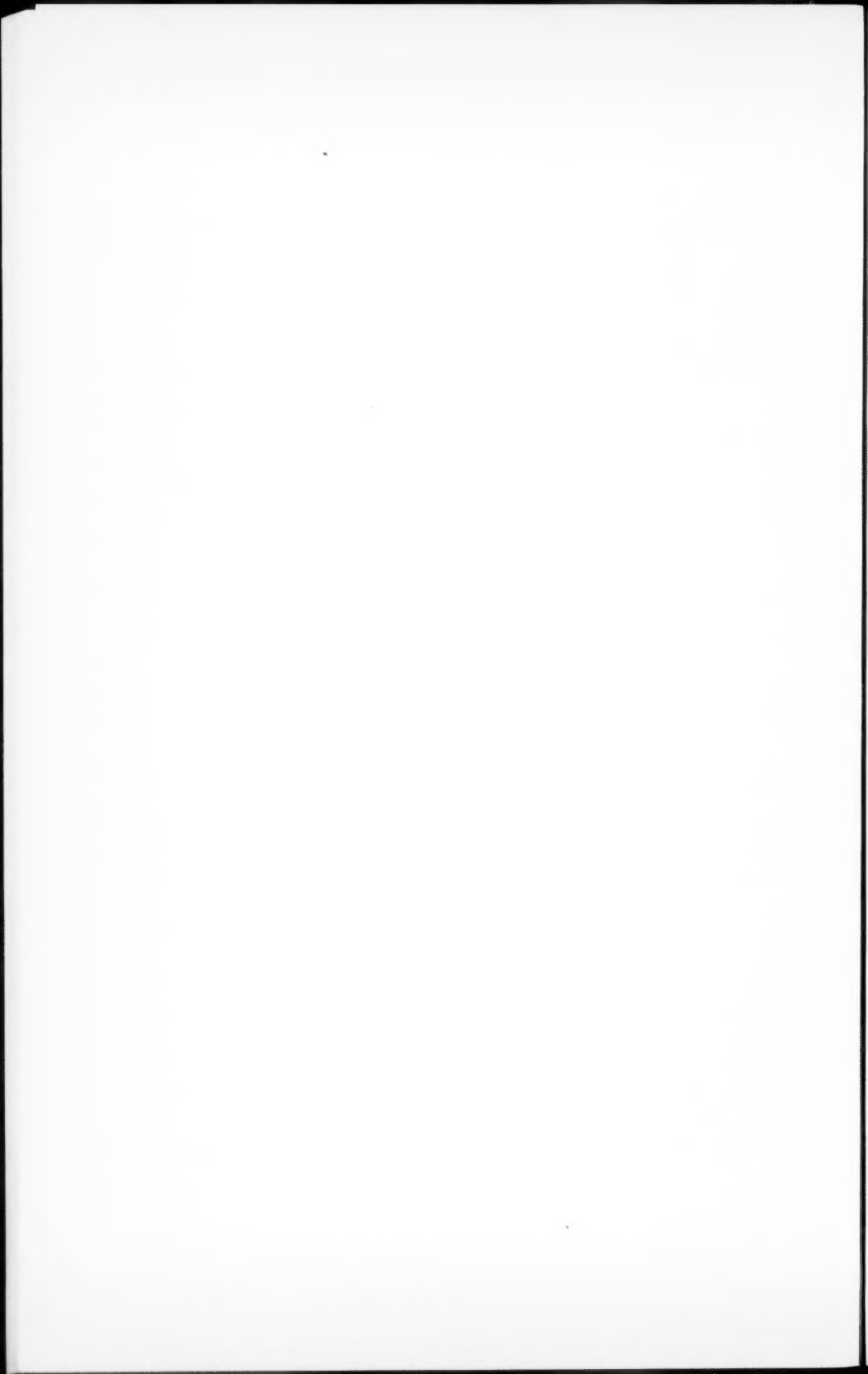
This report was prepared from material presented at the 1955 Conference on Public Personnel Administration. Mr. Gehlmann describes some widely known personality tests and explains how "scores" are interpreted. Mr. Ferguson summarizes the experience private industry has had with personality testing. Mr. Scott discusses the extent to which government has used personality tests and gives special attention to some of the obstacles to their use in the public service.

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The 1956 Annual Conference to be held in Washington, D. C., October 7-12, will commemorate the 50th Anniversary of the founding of the Civil Service Assembly. The first meeting of the National Assembly of Civil Service Commissions, the forerunner of CSA, was also held in the nation's capital in 1906. The entire 1956 conference program has been planned in keeping with the celebration of a half century of progress in public personnel administration.

- Ten Golden Anniversary Awards will be presented to five individuals and five organizations for their distinguished contributions to the advancement of the merit system and high standards of performance for the public service.
- A Golden Anniversary Banquet and a special luncheon honoring past and present officers of the Assembly will highlight this important milestone.
- There is to be a series of historical exhibits looking back through the years to the days when CSA was young and a career in public service was becoming recognized as a proud profession.

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The Civil Service Assembly is proud of the role it has played in extending the merit system, in improving the techniques personnel people use to do their job, in raising the competence of men and women in the profession. We are going to celebrate the accomplishments of the Assembly, but we are also going to assess accomplishments and plan new goals.

The October, 1956, *Public Personnel Review* will be a Golden Anniversary issue

**"Perspective in Public Personnel Administration: A Collection
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This special issue is planned as a benchmark reference work with articles on broad aspects of personnel administration by recognized authorities in their fields. It will be the size of a small book with a special cover and binding.

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If you are not a member of CSA, write immediately for a membership application and a copy of the tentative program for the Golden Anniversary Conference.

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